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ABSTRACT

National studies of the progress being made toward the universalization of primary education in 12 Asian countries are reported in this collection. Begun in 1983, the studies were conducted to analyze the stage reached by the participating countries and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level. The studies reviewed new and current developments in programs and projects which the countries have undertaken to expand and improve primary education. The studies are aimed at achieving primary education for all children. Participating countries were Bangladesh, People's Republic of China, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Phillippines, Republic of Korea, Socialist Republic of Vietnam, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. (RH)

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PS 016069

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

REGIONAL OVERVIEW

PS 016069

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE
FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
Bangkok, 1985

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UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC – REGIONAL OVERVIEW

Children without schools – magnitude

Universal primary education was first adopted as a goal for the countries of the Asia region in the 'Karachi Plan' (1960), which proposed 'that every country of this region should provide a system of universal, compulsory and free primary education of seven years or more within a period of not more than 20 years (1960-1980) . . .'. This target has not been attained, due in part to a more rapid expansion of the population than foreseen in 1960. However, some of the shortfall is attributable to a slackening of the expansion of primary education in the early 1970s, which followed changes in the education and development policies of some countries.

Primary education in about 15 countries of the region covers six years, with the age of admission generally at 6. In others, primary education covers five years. In three countries, the primary cycle is three or four years, but essentially a segment of a longer span which covers eight years of first-level education. In countries which have attained a high enrolment ratio, the trend is for the primary span to be lengthened to include the lower secondary years. In the industrialized countries of the region, (Australia, New Zealand, Japan, USSR) the period of compulsory schooling covers the first IX or X grades, with a very high percentage of pupils staying on in school until 16-17 years of age.

Universalization of primary education (UPE) has now been accepted by many governments in the region as a priority objective, and target dates have been fixed for achieving it. The effect of this renewed commitment on the provision of primary education for all children is beginning to show. However, in the years ahead, it will call for sustained and consistent effort. To assess the magnitude of the effort, it may be convenient to look at the existing situation in terms of the gross enrolment ratios which different countries have reached (see Table 2)[1] on the following page.

Table 1. Enrolment by level of education in Asia and the Pacific 1970-1982

Region and level of education	Enrolment (in thousands)				Average annual growth %		
	1970	1975	1980	1982	1970-1975	1975-1980	1980-1982
Total Asia and the Pacific (31 countries)							
Total all levels	**372,866**	**471,432**	**518,068**	**521,980**	**4.9**	**1.9**	**0.4**
First level	**266,037**	**328,311**	**347,954**	**353,900**	**4.3**	**1.2**	**0.9**
Second level	**95,329**	**128,122**	**151,295**	**147,543**	**6.1**	**3.4**	**–1.3**
Third level	**11,500**	**14,999**	**18,819**	**20,537**	**5.5**	**4.6**	**4.5**
Developed Asia and the Pacific (4 countries)							
Total all levels	**74,753**	**74,508**	**74,818**	**75,199**	**0.1**	**0.1**	**0.3**
First level	**37,448**	**33,642**	**35,526**	**36,336**	**–2.1**	**1.1**	**1.1**
Second level	**30,683**	**33,417**	**31,244**	**30,799**	**1.7**	**–1.3**	**–0.7**
Third level	**6,622**	**7,449**	**8,049**	**8,064**	**2.4**	**1.6**	**0.1**
Developing Asia and the Pacific (excl. China) (26 countries)							
Total all levels	**166,302**	**200,115**	**239,042**	**258,859**	**3.8**	**3.6**	**4.1**
First level	**123,309**	**143,729**	**166,158**	**177,845**	**3.1**	**2.9**	**3.5**
Second level	**38,163**	**49,337**	**63,274**	**69,716**	**5.3**	**5.1**	**5.0**
Third level	**4,830**	**7,049**	**9,610**	**11,298**	**7.9**	**6.4**	**8.4**

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics

In this regard four patterns are discernible. The four industrialized countries (Australia, New Zealand, Japan and USSR), which account for 13.7 per cent of the total regional population, have already fully achieved universal schooling of ten years' duration. Of the developing countries, 13 (Group A) have a gross enrolment ratio for both sexes of 100 per cent or more, which does not necessarily

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[1] **A gross enrolment ratio for a given level of education is derived by dividing the total enrolment for this level of education, regardless of age, by population of the age-group which according to national regulations should be enrolled at this level. In the developing countries such enrolment includes children who may be under age or over age with reference to the level of education.**

Table 2. Selected indicators of the expansion of primary education in Asia and the Pacific 1970–1982 (29 countries)[1]

	Gross enrolment ratios (in %)				Disparity between sexes (in %)		Enrolment: Average annual growth rate (in %)		
	1970	1982							
	MF	MF	M	F	1970 MF	1982 MF	1970-1975	1975-1980	1980-1982
Developed countries									
Australia	115	109	110	109	0	1	-1.1	1.0	-0.8
Japan	99	100	100	100	0	0	1.5	2.7	0.3
New Zealand	110	102	103	101	2	2	-0.5	-0.5	-1.2
USSR	104	107	...	...	...	...	-3.7	0.3	1.8
Group A (100% and more)									
China	102	116	127	104	...	23	7.5	-0.6	-0.9
Democratic People's Rep. of Korea[2]	...	113	115	112	...	3	...	...	...
Fiji	106	109	110	109	4	1	1.6	-1.2	0.6
Indonesia	77	116	122	109	12	13	3.6	7.5	2.8
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	64	100	107	93	31	14	5.3	8.6	4.2
Mongolia	116	106	105	108	9	-3	2.7	2.1	2.1
Philippines	108	107	106	107	2	-1	1.7	2.3	0.7
Republic of Korea	103	104	106	103	1	3	-0.5	0.2	-1.7
Singapore	106	104	106	102	8	4	-2.0	-2.3	-2.2
Socialist Republic of Viet Nam[3]	119	113	120	106	11	14	...	1.3	3.5
Sri Lanka	99	104	106	101	10	5	-3.0	7.7	1.5
Tonga	117	108	110	105	6	5	1.5	-0.7	-2.1
Turkey	108	103	111	95	29	16	1.7	0.7	3.5
Group B (85-99%)									
Burma	87	86	88	84	9	4	1.8	3.3	2.9
India	73	85	100	70	34	30	2.9	2.0	4.4
Iran (Islamic Rep. of)	74	97	112	81	41	31	8.2	3.1	3.5
Malaysia	87	92	93	91	7	2	2.4	1.3	1.5
Nepal	26	94	141	43	35	98	11.9	14.1	19.2
Samoa	98	99	97	101	-2	-4	2.1	0.2	-0.9
Thailand	91	95	98	93	8	5	3.0	3.3	0.8

Table 2. Selected indicators of the expansion of primary education in Asia and the Pacific 1970-1982 (29 countries) (cont'd)

	Gross enrolment ratios (in %)				Disparity between sexes (in %)		Enrolment: Average annual growth rate (in %)		
	1970	1982							
	MF	MF	M	F	1970 MF	1982 MF	1970-1975	1975-1980	1980-1982
Group C (below 70%)									
Afghanistan	25	36	57	14	34	43	5.4	7.3	6.4
Bangladesh	52	64	78	49	34	29	9.6	-0.3	3.2
Bhutan	6	15	19	10	9	9	10.3	11.1	10.9
Pakistan	40	58	81	33	35	48	5.6	6.1	4.6
Papua New Guinea	52	66	73	58	25	15	4.5	4.7	4.3

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics.

1. Within each group, countries are ranked according to the value of the gross enrolment ratio for both sexes (MF) in 1982.
2. Data refer to 1976.
3. Data for 1970 refer to 1975.

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mean UPE. In these countries the expansion of enrolment in the future will follow demographic trends and efforts to extend schooling to children in remote areas. The 13 countries in Group A account for 48.5 per cent of the total regional population.

Group B comprises seven countries (30.2 per cent of the total regional population) which have reached 85-99 per cent gross enrolment ratios. This is the empirical threshold beyond which further expansion is possible in a relatively short-term, essentially by reducing very substantially the drop-out and grade repetition rates and increasing the enrolment of special population groups notably girls, and children in remote geographical areas. Countries in Group C (five countries) have less than 70 per cent gross enrolment ratios, ranging to a low of 15 per cent. They account for 7.5 per cent of the total population of the region. The recent average annual growth rates of enrolment in this group have been around 5-10 per cent, but would have to be raised and sustained at around 7-12 per cent to ensure universal primary education in the 1990s.

Taking the region as a whole, the current shortfall of primary education places means more than 60 million children of primary age-group are not enrolled.

Universalization of primary education

Primary education in the Asia and the Pacific region is seen to have a particular long-term value in bringing about social and economic transformation. Expression of this faith is enshrined in the constitutions of many Member States and is elaborated in national development plans, which give a high priority to the achievement of the goal of universal primary education.

The problems associated with the universalization of primary education, as well as the importance of overcoming those problems, have received much attention in regional meetings and conferences. The Karachi Plan, formulated in 1959-1960 by representatives of Asian countries, put stress on the provision of free and compulsory education for a minimum of seven years' duration. Subsequent conferences of ministers of education of the region continued to support this goal, especially through the document which became known as the Asian Model of Educational Development.[1] The declaration adopted by the Ministers of Education at MINEDASO IV (Colombo, 1978) re-affirmed the 'commitment to the principle of universal schooling of children'.

Three dimensions of universal primary education (UPE)

The countries of the region are making efforts to see that the goal of universal primary education is reached as early as possible. While their plans[2] indicate a continuing emphasis on providing facilities and promoting enrolments, there is an increasing concern for the improvement of the quality of primary schooling. In this context, the universalization of primary education may be seen to have three dimensions:

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[1] Unesco. *An Asian model of educational development – perspective for 1965-1980.* Paris (1966).

[2] At the request of Unesco, 12 countries prepared studies of their national programme for universal primary education; these studies have been published by Unesco (Bangkok, 1984).

1. *Universal access.* This involves providing facilities and incentives for enrolment in primary education on a scale and in forms adequate and suitable to ensure that all children of primary school age have access to and are able to benefit from such facilities.
2. *Retention and completion.* Educational facilities cannot be effective unless children stay long enough to acquire the basic learning skills.
3. *Learning achievement level.* This refers to the standards of pupil performance and achievement through which the objectives of primary education are realized. Improvements in various aspects of curriculum development, teaching/learning materials, and pre-service and in-service teacher education are needed to help children attain the required levels of achievement. Viewed in a larger context, the issue is to ensure that equal opportunity for access is matched by equal opportunity for educational success.

Universal access: targets

Most of the countries in the region have adopted policies with target dates for achieving UPE in a phased manner.[1] Programmes and projects covering new structures and processes for implementing these policies have also been initiated. The target dates mentioned in the national plans of the countries concerned suggest that by 1995 almost all countries of the region would have achieved universal access to primary education.

The majority of out-of-school children are girls, so the full enrolment of girls will, in fact, largely complete the task of universalizing primary education in many countries of the region. In one country, for instance, it is estimated that girls constitute three-fourths of the non-enrolled children in the compulsory education age-group.

While girls constitute the majority of children outside the reach of primary education in the region, there are several disadvantaged groups (boys and girls) who have yet to be brought fully within its ambit. They include, among others, the rural poor, minority groups, nomadic tribes, people of mountainous and other inaccessible areas, and urban slum-dwellers.

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[1] *Op. cit.* National studies.

The provision of educational services for population groups with special characteristics calls for programmes tailored to their specific needs. This applies in particular to groups with languages other than the national language. Initial instruction in the mother tongue and bilingual teaching are considered essential.

The considerable number of handicapped children in the region constitutes another group with special needs. At present there are only about 120,000 places available in special education institutions in 20 countries. However, a majority of children with handicaps could be educated within ordinary schools, but this 'mainstreaming' would require the reorientation of teachers in dealing with children with handicaps.

Retention in school

In many countries of the region, a major factor undermining universal primary education is that a large proportion of the children who enrol in school drop out before completing the entire primary cycle, in fact, usually within the first two years. The incidence of drop-out is indicative of the low efficiency of the education system and represents a waste of human and financial resources invested in the system. More importantly, drop-out means that children's aspirations are frustrated by the inability of the school to respond effectively to their learning needs.

Table 3 shows the drop-out rates and the inverse 'survival rates' (i.e. the percentage of children entering school in a given year and who complete the entire primary cycle) for 17 developing countries in the region. It can be seen that the drop-out rates vary from a low of 3 per cent to a high of 80 per cent. Available data imply that at the end of the 1970s, more than 25 million children dropped out of school each year before reaching grade IV. Generally, countries which have achieved a high enrolment ratio have also reduced drop-out rates to a minimum.

The causes of drop-out are known: they are social, cultural, economic and also educational. Indeed, because the educational causes work in combination with social and economic causes, they are often under-estimated by educators. Studies have shown that drop-out affects the enrolment of children from poor families more than others. Since the incidence of drop-out is higher in the first two grades, most drop-outs retain no basic skills provided by the school.

Unless direct measures are taken aimed specifically at the problem of drop-out, the percentage of drop-outs in an educational system tends to maintain itself around the same level over a long period of time. In a number of developing countries determined educational measures aimed at preventing large-scale drop-out have been effective within a quite short period and have dramatically raised the retention rates (for example, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Mongolia and Thailand).

Table 3. Survival and drop-out in primary education
(17 developing countries)

Country	Cohort beginning in:	Number of grades	% Survival to last grade	% Drop-out before last grade
Afghanistan	1980	8	54	46
Bangladesh	1980	5	20	80
Bhutan	1976	6	20	80
Burma	1972	5	32	68
Fiji	1980	6	90	10
India	1969	5	41	59
Indonesia	1980	6	68	32
Iran, Islamic Republic of	1969	6	70	30
Malaysia	1980	6	97	3
Mongolia	1977	3	92	8
Philippines	1979	6	72	28
Republic of Korea	1980	6	97	3
Singapore	1980	6	90	10
Socialist Republic of Viet Nam	1977	5	46	54
Sri Lanka	1980	6	91	9
Thailand	1976	7	43	57
Tonga	1978	6	92	8

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics.

Another form of wastage at the primary level is grade repetition – due to poor examination scores or low attendance or other reasons. In many countries of the region, the average repetition rate is around 10-12 per cent at the primary level.

Several studies show that repetition, especially in the earlier grades, does not improve achievement levels of the children, and has no discernible effect on school 'standards'. In the developing countries, most repeaters tend to become drop-outs. One study in Thailand found that two-thirds of all drop-outs had been repeaters. Unlike drop-out, wastage by repetition is a purely school-made phenomenon.

A strategy for universalizing primary education needs to include specific measures for promoting the retention of children in school and, in particular, the progressive reduction and eventual elimination of grade repetition and drop-out.

School achievement

All the effort and expense of providing school facilities, materials and teachers means little if, at the end of the primary school cycle, children have not acquired appropriate abilities and attitudes to prepare them for life. Children and their parents will not support a school by attending and co-operating unless they are convinced that there will be a positive learning outcome.

Educators in many countries of the region are looking with concern at the level of achievement of primary school children. Assessment studies have been made of the outcomes of the primary school system in Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, the Philippines, the Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Australia, Thailand and in some states of India. In almost all cases, the level of achievement of children has been found less than satisfactory.

These studies have underlined the need for comprehensive educational measures so that the majority of children can reach a specified standard. Almost all countries that have conducted national assessments of pupil performance have introduced major programme reforms in an attempt to increase enrolment ratios and reduce drop-out, as well as improve school achievement.

Efforts to improve primary education seem to emphasize the following factors:

i) the effective preparation of young children for primary schooling;

ii) the implementation of more effective strategies and methods of instruction, to enable all children to attain an agreed level of competence in the basic skills of numeracy, literacy and communication, in the 'life-skills' (co-operating with others, habits of systematic and hard work) and in one or more manual skills;

iii) the provision of teachers with competencies, attitudes and perceptions necessary to enhance their pupils' achievement and with the skills required to enlist out-of-school resources;

iv) the effective involvement of parents and the community in the education of their children.

Renewal of primary education

This renewal of primary education calls for a global and comprehensive approach covering curriculum development, teacher training and improvements in teaching methods and materials as well as in planning and management.

In several countries of the region, as stated above, there has been a re-examination of the curriculum in relation to UPE when it was felt that the existing curriculum did not meet the diversified needs of learners, particularly those from disadvantaged groups. Irrelevant curricula and unsuitable teaching methods are seen as an important reason for non-enrolment and early withdrawal from school. Curriculum renewal in these countries is moving towards:

i) decentralized adaptation of the core curriculum to meet the specific needs of local communities;

ii) infusion into the curriculum of issues which are of great concern to local communities, such as health, hygiene, nutrition, population education and environmental education;

iii) emphasis on socially useful productive work aimed at linking education and the world of work and at promoting the dignity of manual work;

iv) use of the local environment as a learning resource, particularly for generating concern for its protection and preservation;

v) strengthening of the science and mathematics content of the curriculum to prepare children more adequately for living in a society impacted by modern science and technology;

vi) an orientation with respect to moral values.

New approaches to teacher preparation

In the context of the effort that is being made to universalize primary education, countries of the region are showing great concern with the re-definition of teachers' roles and with the improvement of their competences particularly the latter because of its implication for the quality of education and pupil achievement. The new roles of teachers visualize their involvement in identifying the problems of groups out-of-school, in community education and affairs, in intensive work with potential drop-outs, and in raising children's achievement level. Then, with the development of 'complementary forms' of education (discussed in a later section of this chapter), the preparation of teaching personnel for these innovative programmes calls for special attention.

With increased emphasis on in-service teacher training, a variety of approaches are being used in the region, including correspondence courses and radio and television packages (comprising radio or television broadcasts, pre- and post-broadcast discussion and support material in print). In some countries, teachers' centres are being set up to provide consultation and other services to teachers, along with weekend orientation courses. Networks of institutions (e.g. 'cluster institutions') providing support services to each other is another approach used for the in-service upgrading of teachers' competences through school-based or area-based programmes.

New structures for planning and management

Three important considerations influence the design of structures for planning and implementing UPE:

i) the need to bring together the contributions of various departments and agencies of the government concerned with primary education;

ii) the need to plan and manage the universal primary education programme in a way that will respond to the characteristics of the population groups concerned;

iii) the need for the full involvement and participation of the communities.

In regard to the first consideration, governments have set up national level, primary education commissions or offices, which bring under one umbrella the contributions of different government agencies and deploy the back-up support of the required expert services in a co-ordinated manner. The second consideration, in some way the most crucial one, involves developing the structures and processes of micro-level (community, district) planning and management. The capabilities of supervision and back-up services are then organized at micro-level where the plans should match the characteristics and needs of the specific population groups and areas to be served. Such developments are now taking shape in several countries, for example, 'cluster schools' in Sri Lanka, 'centre schools' in Pakistan, 'leader schools' in Thailand, 'school complexes' in India. Parallel initiatives in involving the local communities, the third consideration, have been undertaken on a limited scale in several countries. These experiences indicate both the difficulties and the benefits of meeting this requirement for the effective attainment of UPE.

Complementary forms of education

Recognizing that conventional primary schooling may not be able to meet the needs of all out-of-school children, several countries in the region are experimenting with or have developed other forms of education to complement the conventional primary school.

In one country, 100,000 'non-formal education centres' have been established, enrolling nearly three million children. The curriculum is flexible and aims at achieving in two years the basic attainments reached by children in five years of formal schooling. In another country, 'literacy centres' and 'community learning centres' are being established to provide a parallel structure having links with the formal system to provide need-based learning opportunities to out-of-school children in the 5-10, 10-14 and 14+ age-groups.

'Slack farming' schools have been set up in one country with the task to enrol children who cannot go to full-time schools because of financial difficulties. Another country runs some schools having a simplified curriculum with 20-26 weeks of instruction, depending upon the actual conditions of the locality. Learning centres have been set up in another country, to allow school drop-outs to study at home and receive individual guidance and evaluation of achievement at the learning centre. In yet another country, five-year primary schools have been set up which use a condensed curriculum and run in shifts.

In a number of areas, children cannot attend schools because schools do not exist. This is particularly true in sparsely populated areas where the establishment of a school within a village or zone is not found feasible on economic grounds. Similarly, nomadic populations, moving from one place to another, require alternative institutional arrangements for education. A number of countries of the region have developed innovative 'moving schools' to meet this situation.

Multi-grade teaching, combination of grades, and new admissions on alternate years, are being adopted in some countries to rationalize the use of educational facilities in sparsely populated communities. The national study of China mentions that full-time schools with multi-grade teaching 'have become a major form in popularizing primary school education'.

Distance learning is emerging in many countries as a major means to reach those groups who, for various reasons, find it difficult to enrol in schools. Because of its flexibility, distance learning is able to cater to educational needs of diverse groups, including the in-service training of teachers.

In many countries of the region, radio and television are being used increasingly to support conventional and complementary educational activities. Television and radio lessons, which are listened to or viewed in schools or community centres, are followed by discussion under the supervision of a teacher. In one country, educational programmes are transmitted through a national satellite for the benefit of primary schools in selected rural areas.

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

BANGLADESH

PS 016069

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE
FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
Bangkok, 1984

This volume is one of a series of National studies of the progress being made towards the universalization of primary education undertaken by the following Member States:

Bangladesh
China
India
Indonesia
Nepal
Pakistan
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Socialist Republic of Viet Nam
Sri Lanka
Thailand

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PREFACE

Universalization of primary education (UPE) is one of the major priority goals of countries in the region of Asia and the Pacific. The developing countries, in particular are now vigorously engaged in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans and programmes aimed at making adequate and suitable opportunities for primary education available as soon as possible for all children and young people.

In 1983, as part of a major project under the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) on the Universalization of Education, 12 countries in the region undertook national studies. The national studies were conducted to analyse the stage reached by the countries in UPE, and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level; to review significant new and current developments in programmes and projects which the countries have undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education; and to contribute to achieving the target of primary education for all children. The studies were conducted by national institutes and professional groups under the guidance of high level committees of the Ministries of Education in the respective countries.

On completion of the national studies, a Regional Review Meeting was held in November 1983 which undertook an in-depth analysis of the methodologies of the national studies and examined their findings. The meeting also made suggestions for improving and updating the national studies tabled for review.

Following the recommendations of the review meeting, study teams in the participating countries have revised and updated the national studies. The present publication is an outcome of the collaborative and co-operative efforts of the member countries in understanding the progress made in the universalization of primary education, the nature and extent of problems and issues and their implications for achieving UPE in the region before the end of this century.

This series which provides a comparative view of the position of and progress made in UPE has been published with the view that the countries in the region, in their bid to step up measures for UPE, will find the information, experiences and conclusions useful in pursuing the goal of 'education for all' with a new vigor by drawing on the experiences of other countries with the same goals and objectives.

ABBREVIATIONS

ADP	Annual Development Programme
AFE	Academy for Fundamental Education
ATEO	Assistant Thana Education Officer
BACE	Bangladesh Association for Community Education
BANBEIS	Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics
BE	Budget Estimate
CLC	Community Learning Centre
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DDPI	Deputy Director of Public Instruction
DEO	District Education Officer
DIS	District Inspector of Schools
HSC	Higher Secondary Certificate
IDA	International Development Association
NFRHRD	National Foundation for Research on Human Resource Development
NCDC	National Curriculum Development Centre
NIEMT	National Institute of Educational Media and Technology
PEO	Primary Education Officer
PTI	Primary Training Institute
RE	Revised Estimate
SCEMR	Society for the Care and Education of Mentally Retarded Children
SDEO	Subdivisional Education Officer
SSC	Secondary School Certificate
TEO	Thana Education Officer
UCEP	Underprivileged Children's Educational Programme
UPE	Universal Primary Education

Conversion Formulae

1 lakh = 100,000

1 crore = 10,000,000

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Chapter One

DEVELOPMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

British period

Primary education as it is understood today in Bangladesh and the rest of the subcontinent was first recommended in Wood's Education Despatch of 1854 when the British East India Company was the dominant political power in India. The recommendation was for the establishment of a graded school system, from universities and colleges to primary schools at the bottom. The Despatch also recommended education for the masses through indigenous elementary schools.

Since in the traditional indigenous system of elementary education, there was no place for low caste pupils and girls, education for the masses came as a new concept in the subcontinent. However, in the absence of adequate funds, the recommendation in Wood's Despatch regarding promotion of primary education and provision of grants-in-aid to indigenous elementary schools remained largely unimplemented by the newly created Department of Public Instruction.

In 1858 the Government of India came directly under the Crown. Between 1858 and 1871 local taxes were imposed in most of the provinces to meet the cost of primary education. In Bengal, where the peculiar land revenue system known as Permanent Settlement presented an obstacle, a large Government grant coupled with the opening of indigenous schools at local initiative (but mostly aided) stimulated considerable expansion of primary education.

From the very beginning the training of teachers for indigenous and primary schools attracted the attention of the authorities. In Bengal, the circle system was introduced in 1855, under which village school teachers of 3-4 schools (forming a circle) were trained under a master teacher (Guru). This was replaced in 1862 by training of teachers through the 'Normal School' system. This one-year course providing a stipend of Rs.5 a month included reading, writing, arithmetic, accounts and mensuration, elementary geography and history, and the art of teaching. In 1881-1882, there were 106 Normal Schools in India with an enrolment of 3,886 primary teachers, maintained at a total cost of Rs.4 lakh.

In 1882 the then Viceroy of India, Lord Ripon, appointed the Indian Education Commission to review the development of education in India since Wood's Despatch and to suggest measures for carrying out its policy recommendations. The Commission recommended that because of limited funds at the disposal of the Government, the control of primary education should be given to local bodies (district and municipal boards). The local bodies would raise funds locally and through subsidy from the Government, as well as tuition fees. The Commission declared that primary education would have an almost exclusive claim on local funds and a large claim on the provincial revenues. The other recommendations of the Commission regarding primary education were as follows:

a) The first charge on the provincial funds assigned for primary education would be the cost of its direction and inspection and the provision of Normal Schools.

b) Primary education should be viewed as instruction of the masses through the vernacular in such subjects as will fit them for their position in life and be not necessarily regarded as part of instruction leading to the university.

c) There should be a larger introduction of practical subjects such as native methods of arithmetic, accounts and mensuration, elements of natural and physical science and their application to agriculture, health and industrial arts.

d) There should be a measure of elasticity in school timing depending on the seasons of the year.

Following the recommendation of the Indian Education Commission (1882), district and municipal boards were made responsible for primary education, but its recommendation on financing of primary education was not followed. The provincial revenue spent on education was taken up by college and secondary education.

Meanwhile, the indigenous schools were slowly dying out for want of official support. Many of them were incorporated into the new educational system and converted into primary schools while many others were closed down. As a result, by the beginning of the twentieth century the indigenous schools almost ceased to exist.

Some of the achievements in the field of primary education during 1884-1902 were construction of school buildings, improvement of training of primary teachers, admission of girls and pupils of low caste, and use of printed books. The method of teaching was improved by using object lessons, more humane treatment of the child in the classroom and teaching aids. The size of classes was increased and periodic examinations were introduced and enforced for promotion. In contradistinction the indigenous schools were small, allowing the teacher to pay individual attention to pupils. But there were no fixed standards or examinations. Each pupil progressed at his own pace and left when he had acquired all he wanted to learn or the school had to offer.

Lord Curzon, who took over as Viceroy of India in 1899, proved to be a great educational reformer. He followed a policy of giving larger grants to primary education – both non-recurrent and recurrent – which enabled the provincial governments to raise the rate of grant-in-aid to the local bodies from one-third to one-half of total expenditure and to pay a greater amount to private primary schools. This brought about a considerable expansion of primary education as the following figures will show.[1]

	1881-1882	1901-1902	1911-1912
No. of recognized primary schools	82,916	93,604	118,262
Enrolment	2,061,541	3,076,671	4,806,736

Between 1910-1913 the great Indian leader G. K. Gokhale made heroic efforts to make the Government accept the principle of compulsory primary education. Although his efforts did not bear fruit, the Government adopted a policy of rapid expansion and improvement of primary education, saying that compulsory free primary education was not yet practicable in the Indian situation.

In the decade 1917-1927, most of the provinces of India passed Compulsory Education Acts to be implemented in selected rural and urban areas for children of both sexes. In Bengal, the Bengal Primary Education Act (1919) and the Bengal Rural Primary Education Act (1930) covered both the municipalities and rural areas. Under this act, District School Boards were constituted and a primary education tax in rural areas was imposed. Although the local self-government institutions were made responsible for enforcing attendance, they were generally unwilling to prosecute defaulting

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1/ Syed Nurullah and J.P. Naik. History of Education in India During the British Period, (Delhi; Macmillan & Co.,Ltd., 1943). p. 417.

parents and compulsion was applicable to boys only. The passing of Compulsory Education Acts, however, underscores the importance that was attached to primary education, and it did result in rapid expansion of primary education during 1922-1927, as the following figures show.[1]

	1921-1922	1926-1927
Number of primary schools	155,017	184,829
Enrolment	6,109,752	8,017,923
Direct expenditure on primary education (Rs.)	49,469,080	67,514,802

In 1929 a committee known as the Hartog Committee was appointed to review the position of education in India. It pointed out that the increase in the number of primary schools during the preceding two decades had not produced a commensurate increase in literacy, for only a small percentage of those in the primary schools reached Class V. Taking India as a whole, the Committee gave the following data regarding wastage, showing that only 6.29 per cent of those enrolled in Class I in 1922-1923 would complete Class V.[2]

Year	Class	Enrolment
1922-1923	I	533,878
1923-1924	II	161,228
1924-1925	III	86,846
1925-1926	IV	55,794
1926-1927	V	33,588

Ascribing the wastage to poverty, illiteracy and the conservatism of the parents, the Hartog Committee recommended a policy of consolidation in preference to one of diffusion. It also recommended a minimum 4-year primary course, upgrading the standard of general education and training of teachers, a more effective system of inspection and supervision, and revision of the curricula so as to raise the standard of village life in all aspects. It also observed that the devolution of authority in primary education to local bodies had been excessive.

1/ *op cit*, pp. 467. 533.
2/ *op cit*, p. 538.

The combined effect of the policy of consolidation in place of expansion the financial stringency caused by worldwide economic depression and failure to enforce compulsory education resulted in comparatively little progress in primary education between 1927-1937. The official attempt to bring about qualitative improvement of primary education did not prove to be an adequate compensation for the loss in quantity. There was, however, some improvement in the training of teachers, the percentage of trained teachers rising from 44 in 1927 to 57 in 1937. There were also several changes in the curricula enabling the teachers to co-ordinate instruction with rural life and environment.

The Government of India Act (1935) resulted in the introduction of provincial autonomy, which came into operation in 1937 in eleven provinces of British India. Most matters relating to education were transferred to the provinces. Immediately compulsory education started attracting the attention of the provinces. Another trend of the closing years of British rule was the tendency to accept the Hartog Committee recommendation to withdraw or curtail the powers given to local bodies over primary education. Furthermore, in 1937 Mahatma Gandhi came forward with a proposal for 7-year free, compulsory, basic education that could be given to every child by making the process of schooling centre around some useful and productive craft. Unfortunately as a result of the stresses of the Second World War there was a decrease in the number of primary schools from 192,244 in 1936-1937 to 167,000 in 1945-1946, although there was a negligible increase in enrolment from 10,224,288 to 13,027,313 during this period.

In 1944 a comprehensive plan for educational reconstruction known as the Sargent Plan was prepared. It provided for pre-primary education for children between three to six years of age and universal, compulsory, free primary or basic education for all children between 6-14 years, divided into junior basic (6-11) and senior basic (11-14) stages. This was to be achieved in a period of 40 years. Within three years of the Sargent Report the British left the Indian subcontinent and two independent states – India and Pakistan – came into existence in August 1947.

Pakistani period (1947-1971)

On the partition of India in 1947, the geographical area now constituting Bangladesh became a province of Pakistan. In the first national conference on education held in November 1947, the new country adopted the objective of universal, free compulsory education for all children between 6-11 years, extending it gradually to cover all children up to 14 years. The duration of the primary course in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) was extended from four to five years with effect from January 1952.

Universal free primary education was a major goal of national planning in the First Five-Year Plan (1955-60). It was hoped that free compulsory education would be possible in about 20 years. For Bangladesh, where about one quarter of primary schools were financed in part or whole by private organizations or charity, it was proposed to improve 6,000 out of 26,260 primary schools by increasing the salaries of trained teachers and by providing better physical facilities. The allocation for primary education was Rs. 51.66 million, which accounted for 21.4 per cent of the total allocation for the province's education sector. However, excepting some improvement in the salaries of teachers, no noticeable progress was made in the sphere of primary education during the First Plan period. The enrolment increased by less than 50 per cent from what was planned.

On the eve of the Second Plan (1960-1965) a Commission on National Education was set up in 1959. The Commission recommended that a 5-year primary course should be made universal and compulsory within ten years, and that compulsory education of eight years' duration should be introduced and implemented within the next 15 years. It advocated a system of promoting children by age at the end of the year rather than on the basis of test results, to decrease the number of drop-outs.

The Second Plan provided for better buildings for 13,300 primary schools, more qualified teachers and regular school supplies. Enrolment was expected to rise by 1.3 million, bringing the percentage of the age-group children attending school from 48 per cent to 63 per cent. Education of girls and revision of curricula would receive special attention. Primary education got an allocation of Rs. 70 million, which worked out to be 18.01 per cent of the total allocation for the education sector. It is not clear from the Plan if the recommendations of the Commission on National Education regarding primary education were taken into consideration in its formulation.

The Third Plan (1965-1970) aimed at increasing enrolment from 45 per cent to 70 per cent of the primary age-group by 1970, mainly by increasing the enrolment of girls. To achieve the target, 18,000 existing primary schools would be improved and 4,000 new schools would be added. The problems associated with wastage and stagnation which were not only educational but also economic and social would be subjected to careful study and review. Physical facilities in the teacher training institutions would be improved along with improvement in techniques and materials for teaching and the syllabi. Elementary agriculture and crafts indigenous to particular localities would be introduced in Classes IV and V in selected primary schools. The revised allocation for primary education was Rs. 250 million representing 20.20 per cent of the total allocation for the education sector. There was a provision to start some pilot projects in adult education of an intensive nature during the Plan period.

Primary education did not enjoy the priority it deserved in any of the three five-year plans executed during the Pakistani period (1947-1971), although there was no dearth of rhetoric championing its cause. The share of primary education out of the total allocation for the education sector was around 20 per cent, but actual utilization of these funds was much less. The plans did not provide a programme for making primary education free, compulsory and universal, but only indicated a target increase in enrolment by improving physical facilities, providing for better trained teachers and a thorough revision of curricula. But the targets were never achieved. There were 2.72 million children in 1954-1955, 3.27 million in 1959-1960, 4.16 million in 1964-1965 and around 5.5 million in 1969-1970 in primary schools. The number of primary schools declined from 29,633 in 1947-1948 to 26,665 in 1960-1961 and subsequently increased to 29,029 in 1969-1970.

Post-independence period

Bangladesh was born out of what was East Pakistan on 16 December 1971. One of the first acts of the Government in the newly independent country in the field of primary education was to nationalize the majority of privately managed primary schools in 1973-1974. As a result the teachers of these schools became Government servants.

One of the educational objectives of the First Plan (1973-1978) of Bangladesh was that all children must be assured basic formal education at least up to primary level. To achieve this goal, a double shift would be introduced in 5,000 schools which would enrol an additional one million pupils; 5,000 new schools would be established to accommodate another one million children; 15,000 previously developed schools would enrol 250 children each and the rest (10,500 school). 175 pupils each. Of the 35,500 schools at the end of the Plan period, 71 per cent would be fully developed for double shift operation so as to provide a base to permit universal primary education during subsequent plan periods. Social and political efforts would be combined with non-formal activities to increase the enrolment of girls. Drop-out rates, especially between Classes I and II, would be reduced by undertaking supplementary, non-formal and innovative measures. Despite this strategy and programme, only 18 per cent of the total allocation in the education sector was earmarked for the development of primary education, the breakdown being as follows:[1]

Construction and consolidation	.....	Tk. 33.00	crore*
Instructional materials	.....	Tk. 8.34	"
Salaries of additional teachers for double shift programme	.....	Tk. 9.00	"
Textbooks	.....	Tk. 7.38	"
Total:		Tk. 57.72	"

* 1 crore = 10 million

Besides the above allocation, a sum of Tk. 7.50 crore for establishing 15 new primary training institutes, including three exclusively for women teachers, and a sum of Tk. 3.00 crore for improvement of the existing institutes were earmarked.

The Plan also drew up a comprehensive programme of non-formal education. It included people's schools for skill development during vacations, youth camps, literacy schools, women's education centres, feeder schools, non-formal vocational training centres and workers' schools. A sum of Tk. 40.00 crore (50 per cent to be contributed by the community) was earmarked for the purpose.

1/ Planning Commission, Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, *The First Five-Year Plan (1973-78)*, (Dhaka: Planning Commission, 1973), p. 448.

The Plan made moderate progress in implementing various programmes in primary education. The number of schools increased by 5,000 although there remained 3,749 schools to be nationalized. Furthermore, 5,000 schools including some privately managed schools were repaired or improved. The total enrolment went up from 7.7 million in 1973 to 8.2 million in 1978 (although the correct enrolment figure is hard to assess). Girls' enrolment registered an increase from 2.7 million to 3 million during the same period. The number of primary teachers increased from 155,742 in 1973 to 186,144 in 1978, out of which 61,951 (33.28 per cent) were untrained. A national academy for primary education known as the Academy for Fundamental Education was established in 1978.

The existing programmes in primary education were continued during the next two years (1978-1980), known as the Two-Year Plan period. Combining the two periods of the First Plan and Two-Year Plan, primary education was allocated a total of Tk. 800 million out of which only Tk. 341 million could be spent – a mere 42.6 per cent. In contrast the university subsector spent Tk. 683 million as against an allocation of Tk. 571 million – a 119.5 per cent utilization.

The low utilization of funds allocated for primary education, especially during the First Plan, is ascribed to a shortage of experienced educational planners and administrators and a resource constraint aggravated by the famine of 1974.

Meanwhile, the present Second Plan (1980-1985) was prepared and it became operational from July 1980. The stated educational objective of the Plan is to eliminate illiteracy and achieve UPE as steps towards comprehensive human resource development. The public sector Plan allocations in the education and other sectors have been revised several times during the last three years. The education sector has now been allocated Tk. 4,700 million (in 1979-1980 prices) which is 4.3 per cent of the total public sector allocation. Out of this, a sum of Tk. 2,222 million (over 46 per cent) has been allocated to primary education. In order that primary education receive undivided attention, a separate Directorate of Primary Education has been created. The main features of the programme include the following:

a) Improving physical facilities;

b) Supply of textbooks free of cost to all children;

c) Supply of school uniforms free of cost to one-third of the girl students (policy being currently reviewed);

d) Supply of teaching aids;

e) Training of teachers;

f) Effective supervision of schools;

g) Decentralized administration;

h) Trying out innovative programmes to increase enrolment and retention rates;

i) Review of curricula and textbooks on a continuing basis;and

j) Active community involvement.

The UPE programme has as its major target the enrolment of 12.9 million children representing 91 per cent of the total primary age-group (6-11 years).

The programme started with a big bang by launching a countrywide mass literacy drive with a public sector investment of Tk. 460 million. The objective was to make 40 million people of the 11-45 age-group literate by 1985. After the programme had run for over two years the strategy for mass literacy was changed. The new strategy is to develop the institutional facilities of primary schools for support services rather than to embark upon a separate mass education programme.

Chapter Two

CONSTITUTIONAL/LEGAL PROVISION FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION

The provision of primary education is a constitutional obligation of the Government. Article 17 of the Constitution of the People's Republic of Bangladesh reads as follows:

The State shall adopt effective measures for the purpose of (a) establishing a uniform, mass-oriented and universal system of education and extending free and compulsory education to all children to such stage as may be determined by law; (b) relating education to the needs of society and producing properly trained and motivated citizens to serve those needs; and (c) removing illiteracy within such time as may be determined by law.

In 1981 an act entitled 'Primary Education Act (1981)' was passed. It provided for better organization of primary education and efficient administration and management of the affairs of primary schools. It created a Local Education Authority (LEA) in each subdivision headed by the Subdivisional officer and with the Thana (sub-district) Education Officer as Secretary. The Authority was empowered to carry out all administrative and supervisory functions with regard to primary education under the general guidance and supervision of the Government. The finance was to be provided by the Government, which would also lay down rules for recruitment of teachers and standards of education. The Act provided for a representative managing committee for each primary school.

The Primary Education Act (1981) has been superseded by an executive order on 15 August 1983 in keeping with the reorganization and upgrading of administration at the Thana level. The order provides for further decentralization of administration and management of primary education to the Thana, the smallest administrative unit in the country. The Thana Parished (Council), which will have an elected chairman, will be the focal point of all educational activities. The responsibility for the introduction of UPE will be transferred to the Thana, now called Upa-Zila (subdistrict), and the Government will exercise its powers only in the following areas:

a) Formulation of national policy;

b) Development of curricula along with preparation and printing of textbooks;

c) Standardization of school facilities and uniform quality of teaching;

d) Training of teachers;

e) Sanction of new schools;

f) Creation of pools of teachers and supporting staff;

g) Provision of salary, pension, gratuity, etc.; and

h) Inter-Upa-Zila transfers of teachers.

To assist the Upa-Zila Council in the management of primary education, a primary education committee is being formed. The Chairman of the Council will also be the Chairman of the education committee and its local education officer, its Member-Secretary. Each school will have a managing committee headed by a local resident elected to the local body (Union Parishad). The headteacher of the school will act as its Secretary.

The executive order mentioned above is accompanied by rules laying down the procedure for recruitment and promotion of primary teachers. Under the rules, the Upa-Zila Council will be empowered to make all appointments and promotions. The executive order and recruitment rules shall apply to all primary schools managed by the Government, thus leaving out the 4,371 privately managed, recognized primary schools in the country.

Chapter Three

GENERAL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The basic structure of education in Bangladesh was laid down in Wood's Education Despatch of 1854. The Despatch recommended creation of an office of the Director of Public Instruction in each province, opening of institutions from the university to the primary level, and establishment of vocational colleges and schools of industry.

At the base of the structure is the five year (I-V) primary school for children 6-10 years of age. After this comes the secondary level consisting of five grades (VI-X). But there are many schools, roughly one quarter of the secondary schools, which offer instruction from Class VI to Class VIII and are called junior high schools. The first national level public examination, the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) Examination, is taken at the end of Class X. There are 54 government managed vocational training institutes which admit students who have completed eight years of schooling.

Higher secondary classes (Classes XI and XII) are held in institutions called intermediate colleges and in the intermediate sections of degree colleges. A few prestigious cadet colleges also include Classes XI and XII. The second national level examination, the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) Examination, in arts, science and commerce is held at the end of Class XII. At the post-secondary level a student may join a 3-year course at a polytechnic or other technical institute, such as an agricultural training institute. Both the SSC and HSC Examinations are conducted by four autonomous Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education, while those relating to technical education are conducted by the Technical Education Board.

After Class XII, a student may apply to one of the several institutions of higher education offering professional degrees (medicine, engineering and agriculture) or a general degree in arts, science and commerce. While professional degree courses run for four to five years, the general degree courses could be either at pass (two years) or honours (three years) level. Postgraduate studies leading to Master's and doctoral degrees are available in the universities and some of the degree colleges. The structure described is shown schematically in Appendix 1.

The normal age of entry into a primary school is six. But it may be five and can go up to eight. The age of entry tends to be lower in urban and higher in rural areas.

Pre-primary education is not officially recognized, but almost all primary schools have a hidden baby class for children four to five years of age shown enrolled in Class I.

Administration. There are four general universities, one engineering university and one agricultural university in Bangladesh. They are autonomous organizations but receive 85 per cent of their funds from the Government. The Vice-Chancellors are appointed by the Chancellor (who is the head of State) from a panel of names prepared by the Senate. Development funds are distributed and controlled by the University Grants Commission.

In professional fields, there are eight medical colleges, four engineering colleges, one agricultural college, 17 polytechnics, one college of leather technology, one college of textile technology, one glass and ceramic institute and one graphic arts institute – all managed by the Government.

Till 1981 the Director of Public Instruction (DPI) was responsible for implementation of all educational decisions below the university level. In each division there was a Deputy Director of Public Instruction (DDPI). In each district there were one District Education Officer (DEO) and one District Inspector of Schools (DIS). While the DEO was in charge of secondary education, the DIS was in charge of primary education. At the subdivisional level the Subdivisional Education Officer (SDEO) was in charge of supervision of secondary schools while at the Thana level the Thana Education Officer (TEO) was responsible for administration and supervision of primary education.

After the reorganization in 1981, a separate Directorate of Primary Education was created and placed in the charge of a Director-General. The post of DIS was abolished and in its place the post of Primary Education Officer (PEO) was created. The PEO was made the chief executive of the Local Education Authority (LEA) formed in each subdivision. The DEO, SDEO and the DDPI continued to work for secondary and Madrasah (Islamic) education under the Director-General (Secondary and Higher Education).

At the Thana level the number of Assistant Thana Education Officers (ATEOs) was increased (roughly one ATEO for 20 schools) for close supervision of primary schools. The ATEO works under the general guidance and control of the TEO.

As a result of further decentralization the office of the PEO will be abolished. The responsibility for implementing UPE has now been transferred to the Thana (Upa-Zila) Parishad. The population of a Thana is between 150,000 and 250,000 and the number of primary schools in a Thana does not generally exceed 100.

Administrative organization for primary education. The administrative organization of primary education has been described earlier. At the highest level is the policy making body located in the Ministry of Education. It makes policy decisions regarding all important matters affecting primary education, and broad management and development issues including training of teachers, opening of new schools, and development and preparation of curricula, textbooks and teaching methods. The Directorate of Primary Education executes the policy decisions and reports to the Ministry, seeking guidance and intervention when necessary.

At the moment, there is no one responsible for primary education at the district level. At the Thana (Upa-Zila) level the TEO looks after the administration of primary schools, including teachers' pay, discipline and repair and maintenance of schools. The recently appointed ATEOs are required to visit each school under their jurisdiction once a month for close academic and administrative supervision.

The highest organization for the planning of education is the Planning Commission. It sets out the objectives and strategies of the five-year plans, gives programme outlines and makes financial allocations to various subsectors. Allocations are subject to yearly programming according to the progress of project implementation, availability of resources and the requirements of new priority projects.

In the planning process, the Planning Commission acts in close collaboration with the Ministry of Education, which continually provides the necessary information on changing requirements and physical and financial progress of various projects.

The Ministry itself maintains a Planning Cell to co-ordinate planning activities within the Ministry and keep constant liaison with the Planning Commission. The directorates and the attached offices prepare project proposals in conformity with the plan guidelines or any felt need and send them to the Planning Cell for scrutiny and onward transmission to the Planning Commission. Within the sectoral allocation the Ministry is competent to approve smaller projects which could cost up to Tk. 20 million whereas for bigger projects, involving expenditures between Tk. 20 and 50 million, the approval of the Planning Commission is required. For still bigger projects costing more than Tk. 50 million, the National Economic Council is the final approving authority. Each year an ADP (Annual Development Programme) is prepared and firmed up by the various ministries in consultation with the Planning Commission.

Under the new system of decentralized administration, each Thana (Upa-Zila) will plan and execute programmes for the development of primary education, within the framework of national policy. It will also be responsible for implementation of centrally prepared development projects within the Thana limit.

The central Government, through the Ministry of Education, retains the power to sanction new primary schools, relocate old schools and grant recognition to private schools. The Government has decided to establish one primary school for every 2,000 people or for an area of two sq kilometres. A country-wide school mapping exercise was undertaken in 1980-81, to find out the locations and particulars of the existing schools and to assess future requirements for implementation of UPE.

The primary curricula for Classes I and II include Bengali, arithmetic, environmental science (science and social studies), physical education, art and crafts, music and religion. The curricula for Classes III to V follow the same pattern and add English as a second language from Class III. In classes I and II, each lesson is allocated 30 minutes and in the higher classes 35 minutes. Bengali is taught for five hours a week in Classes II-V. In the higher classes, all other subjects are taught for slightly longer periods per week. In practice, the children seldom have music lessons or do anything resembling art and crafts. Physical education is also rare. A minute fraction of schools offer kitchen gardening through the initiative of an individual teacher.

For convenience and to accommodate the crowd of children in Class I (including the baby class) and Class II, primary schools usually sit in two sessions. The morning session for Classes I and II *is held for two to three hours (9-12 a.m.)* and the afternoon session for Classes III-V is held for three to four hours (12 to 4 p.m.).

Each primary school is provided with a copy of the curriculum along with objectives, methodology and guidelines for evaluation, both by subject and class. The teachers consult the curriculum and the guides specially written for them, and read out from the textbooks. Commonly the chalkboard is used as the only teaching aid.

Till the nationalization of primary schools in 1973-74, primary education in Bangladesh was almost entirely dependent on community support. In setting up a primary school, the Government now expects the land to be donated locally. The community is expected to bear a portion of the cost of construction or renovation.

There are now about 7,472 primary schools which run on the charity of local people. With the rising cost of living caused by soaring inflation, local people are now becoming reluctant to give material support to primary education. They do not even want to give time and attention to the school managing committee. Recently the committee has been reorganized to make it more effective. Moreover, formation of a parent-teacher association is being encouraged in every primary school with a view to making it the centre of all social, civic, and development activities for the local community. Unfortunately, the overnight nationalization of over 36,000 primary schools coupled with galloping inflation has dampened rather than sharpened the interest of the community in primary education. They feel relieved that the Government has taken over the responsibility of running the schools and of implementing UPE.

Teacher training. There are 48 Government primary training institutes (PTIs) and 3 private PTIs spread over the country. They used to offer a one-year Certificate-in-Education course to serving untrained teachers, as well as to SSC holders (raised to HSC since 1981 for men students) who wanted to become teachers. The present curricula include both pedagogical and general subjects. Psychology as well as Principles of Education are taught. The general subjects are those that are taught in the primary schools. Pedagogy includes practice teaching, for which an experimental primary school is attached to each PTI. The annual intake capacity of the PTIs is around 9,000, but it remains underutilized. Between 1977-1978 and 1982-83, an average of 6,123 candidates received training each year. Of them, 50 per cent were serving teachers and the rest were outsiders. In order to raise the proportion of women teachers, female outside candidates are preferred and as an incentive they are paid a monthly stipend (Tk. 150 per month) and provided with free hostel accommodation.

A survey in 1981 showed that out of 145,377 teachers of government primary schools, 15,156 were untrained. In addition, a large percentage of the 31,211 teachers of non-government (registered and unregistered) schools were also untrained. Furthermore, the annual attrition rate due to retirement, death and other reasons is about 5,000, as against the 3,078 non-teachers (on average) who received training annually during the last six years. At the present rate of output of PTI graduates it is not possible to fill the yearly vacancies.

Currently the one-year Certificate-in-Education course is being replaced by a 2-year HSC (Education) course. This requires the expansion of physical facilities and teaching staff to allow more intensive and higher quality training of teachers. After the transition phase of two years, the yearly training capacity of the PTIs will be restored and gradually increased according to requirements.

The Academy for Fundamental Education (AFE) was established in 1978 with a view to improving primary education by curriculum revision, enhancement of the quality of PTI training, development of learning aids, and for research into problems and issues of primary education. Both the AFE and the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) have the responsibility of determining the academic and pedagogical contents of the training course at the PTIs. The final HSC (Education) Examination will be conducted and evaluated by the AFE.

The AFE is the main source of in-service training for PTI instructors, TEOs and ATEOs. The PTIs, in turn, conduct in-service training for primary teachers. Sometimes special training courses are arranged at the Thana headquarters for primary headteachers and other teachers. Recently a concept of cluster training programmes has been developed. Under this programme, the PTIs will give short training courses to the ATEOs who, in turn, will give one-day training courses to primary teachers during their monthly visit to schools.

Administration and supervision of primary schools. The TEO (minimum qualification: bachelor's degree with a degree in education) is the educational administrator most closely linked to the primary school. He is responsible for all aspects of primary education including administration and supervision. The TEO has to look after about 100 schools and a staff of 400-500 teachers. He must arrange all school supplies including textbooks, and advise on location of new schools and merger and nationalization of existing schools. He is also required to feed the Directorate of Primary Education with information on all administrative and academic matters, through the Primary Education Officer posted at subdivisional level. To assist the TEO in the administration and supervision of schools, a cadre of ATEOs (50 per cent recruited from head-teachers and the rest from among college graduates through open competition) has been created.

Pre-service on-the-job training is the missing element in the training of the TEOs and ATEOs. They should have a fair knowledge of plan objectives, strategies and programmes in the education sector and knowledge of local level educational planning and administration, as well as techniques of supervision. The AFE could design appropriate courses of two to three months' duration which the TEOs and ATEOs would be required to go through before taking up their appointments.

With the decentralization of administration to Upa-Zilas (Thana), the TEOs and ATEOs have now to play a more important role in the development and management of primary education. Their effectiveness may be enhanced by delegation of administrative authority and financial powers as well as by rationalizing the jurisdiction of the ATEOs for more intensive supervision of schools.

The ATEO is an itinerant officer spending almost all his working days in visiting schools and taking remedial measures. There is one ATEO for 20 schools, and he is supposed to visit all of them at least once a month.

Inasmuch as the headteachers perform a supervisory function over the teachers, some financial and administrative powers such as granting of casual leave to teachers, initiating disciplinary action, and incurring expenditure up to a certain amount could be delegated to them. This would help them assert their authority and maintain discipline in the school. This is now lacking.

Textbooks. The Bangladesh School Textbook Board is responsible for writing and printing of textbooks at the primary and secondary levels. The textbooks are written according to the curricula prescribed by the National Curriculum Development Centre. The primary textbooks are produced either by commissioning authors or by inviting manuscripts. In the former case, the manuscripts are edited by eminent scholars and in the latter, the manuscripts received are reviewed by an expert committee and the selected manuscript is then edited. Recently a system has been introduced by which manuscripts of primary textbooks have to be pre-tested at the AFE. The printing of textbooks, however, is done at private printing presses appointed by the Textbook Board which does not have any printing press of its own.

The responsibility for distribution of primary textbooks lies with the Directorate of Primary Education. The books are taken from the Textbook Board's warehouse and sent to the TEOs by surface transport for distribution to the schools within their jurisdiction.

In 1983 all children of Classes I and II and 50 per cent of the children in Class III were provided with free textbooks, but children attending unregistered primary schools and those attending primary sections attached to secondary schools did not get this benefit. By 1986 textbooks will be supplied free of cost to all children up to Class V.

Educational technology. Since January 1981 Radio Bangladesh in collaboration with the National Institute of Educational Media and Technology (NIEMT) has been broadcasting a 30-minute programme for primary and mass education five days a week. The programme is meant for teachers and children and includes subjects such as Bengali and social studies.

The National Television also telecasts a 20-minute five-day a week programme on primary education. The focus of the programme is Class V children, and it is meant to prepare them for the School Final Scholarship Examination.

Mobile audio-visual vans are used for teacher training and non-formal education. There is a regular programme of production, distribution, and showing of audio-video cassettes for this purpose. Charts, posters and other radio-vision materials and guide books are being produced in support of the cassette programmes and programmes on the air. It has also been proposed to strengthen the training of primary and secondary teachers in production and use of low-cost teaching aids. A total of 1,062 secondary schools throughout the country are in possession of audio control console sets for tape recording educational programmes on radio, which can then be played to supplement classrooom instruction. This facility could also be used for in-service training of primary teachers and supervisors.

Financing primary education. According to a survey carried out in 1981, there were 36,555 government managed, 4,371 non-government (registered) and 3,101 unregistered primary schools in Bangladesh. The recurrent expenditure on primary education in 1972-73 was Tk. 181.9 million, until the almost wholesale nationalization of primary schools in 1973 and 1974, when it went to Tk. 687.3 million in 1977-1978. In the current year (1983-1984), provision for recurrent expenditure on primary education has increased to Tk. 1589.7 million. Although the expenditure shows a substantial increase from 1972-1973 to 1983-1984, given the need for UPE, the financial sacrifice is by no means high. The per-pupil recurrent expenditure in 1978 and 1981 was Tk. 83.82 and Tk. 113.24 respectively. There are no statistics available to show the annual expenditure incurred by the 7,472 privately managed primary schools.

School buildings. The majority of the primary schools are poorly constructed and badly maintained. A study on primary education (1978) revealed the following distribution of school buildings (in percentages) in the rural and urban areas:

Location	Kutcha*	Semi-pucca*	Pucca*	Total
Rural	44.60	28.84	26.56	100.00
Urban	40.36	31.15	28.49	100.00
Dhaka City	10.45	23.13	66.42	100.00
Bangladesh	44.01	28.94	26.97	100.00

Source: NFRHRD, *Primary Education Network in Bangladesh*, Appendix B, Table 2.4

* (Pucca means brick building; semi-pucca means brick wall with or without cemented floor and tin roof; and kutcha means thatched roof with mud wall and plinth.)

The same study found that more than 50 per cent of the schools did not have adequate floor space for use by 200 children at a time (1,400 sq. ft. required at the rate of 7 sq. ft. per child). But since schools are held in two sessions – the morning session for 100-150 children of Classes I and II and the afternoon session for 50-100 children of Classes III-V – accommodation has not proved to be a serious problem in many cases.

A school mapping exercise carried out during 1979-1981 revealed that 1.66 per cent of the primary schools were in a good state of repair, 7.88 per cent were in good condition but needed minor repair; 16.62 per cent needed thorough repair costing Tk. 20,000 - 30,000, 37.54 per cent needed renovation and 32.29 per cent needed total replacement. Obviously, a heavy investment seems to be necessary for repair, renovation and new construction of existing school buildings.

Community participation in primary education. Bangladesh has a long tradition of community support for primary and secondary education in the form of outright gifts of land, cash donations and provision of other sources of income for the school, voluntary labour, donation of construction materials and the like. A new school can be established only on land made available free of cost by the community. It is also expected that the community will bear part of the cost of construction and subsequent maintenance. Other forms of support are also quite common.

In 1973 and 1974 the Government nationalized most of the primary schools, so that by 1981 the number of government managed schools had risen to 36,555. This large scale nationalization in the course of two years is now found to have diminished the degree of community participation in primary education. The individual and collective urge of the community to promote education is gradually decreasing. The high rate of inflation which has severly eroded the real income of the people has contributed to this public apathy. Almost all privately managed schools (registered: 4371; unregistered: 3,101) now want to be nationalized. There has also been a change in the attitude of teachers. They no longer feel accountable to the local community owing to the change of their status to that of government employees.

Although a state responsibility, the government feels that the community has a significant role to play in motivating parents to send their children to school and keep them there till completion of Class V. The community is also expected to play a role in the upkeep of the school structure and premises and in making the school the centre of social and cultural activities.

The decentralization of primary school administration was carried out to enable the community to discharge these responsibilities and promote primary education. Excepting certain policy matters relating to universalization of primary education and the maintenance of uniform teaching standards and student achievement, the Thana Upa-Zila will develop and manage primary education. This will include the appointment and transfer of teachers. There will be an Upa-Zila Education Committee formed for the purpose, Similarly, every school will have a representative managing committee to ensure its proper functioning. The Government is also encouraging the formation of Parent-Teacher Associations in every school to forge greater co-operation and understanding between the community and the school.

Primary enrolment. There was a spectacular rise in primary enrolment from 5.25 million in 1970 to 7.45 million in 1975,[5/] the number of primary schools rising by 10,250 during the same period. The great spurt in primary education followed independence. Then came stagnation. Enrolment rose to 8.03 million in 1980 and to 8.29 million in 1981.

It is believed that the enrolment figures supplied by the field offices are at times inflated by 10-15 per cent. This is reportedly done to justify the posting of more teachers than the ratio of one teacher for 40-50 pupils allows. Moreover, enrolment is not qualified by a minimum of attendance. A child enrolled may hardly attend school, and yet be counted on the roll.

The enrolment figures also disguise the fact that the majority of children crowd Class I and the hidden baby class. The children in rural areas are generally older than the prescribed age-group of six to ten years. By Class III 60 per cent of the original Class I children drop out. For the attainment of literacy and universal primary education, the Class V enrolment has significance, for only those children stand a chance of carrying literacy skills into adult life. But the present school system is producing less than five Class V children per teacher per year as the final output. Table 4 shows

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[5/] Institute of Education and Research, University of Dhaka, *Survey of Primary Schools and Evaluation of Primary School Agriculture Programme in Bangladesh, Part I* (Dhaka: IER, University of Dhaka, 1977), p. 13.

that the situation has been getting worse over the years. (The Class V enrolment dropped from 11 per cent of the total in 1965 to 9 per cent in 1980.)

Almost all primary schools have coeducational facilities. Although female enrolment has been slowly rising, there seems to have been no improvement in the ratio of girls since 1980 – it remains at 60:40. According to a survey carried out by the National Foundation for Research on Human Resource Development (NFRHRD) (1978), of the total enrolment in the sample schools, 62.02 per cent of boys and 37.98 per cent of girls in the rural areas and 55.87 per cent of boys and 44.13 per cent of girls in urban areas – 53.57 per cent of boys and 46.43 per cent of girls in the Dhaka city – were in schools. The enrolment of girls was markedly higher in the urban areas.

The ratio of women teachers is far worse than the enrolment ratio of girls. At the primary level less than 10 per cent of the teachers are women. Efforts are being made to increase the number of women teachers. It is thought that with more women teachers, enrolments of both boys and girls will improve. To encourage enrolment of girls, a system of free distribution of school uniforms to 30 per cent of girl students of Class I was introduced in 1981. In 1983, the benefit of a free uniform was made available to both boys and girls of Class II. Recently the policy of free distribution of uniforms has been discontinued in order to channel funds to the improvement of physical facilities. The Second Plan envisages almost doubling the enrolment of girls.

According to the survey carried out in 1978 by NFRHRD, there were 6.54 million children (91 per cent) in rural primary schools and 0.63 million children (9 per cent) in urban primary schools, including Dhaka city. This is in conformity with the composition of the population: rural – 90 per cent, and urban – 10 per cent.

From the estimated enrolment figures by Classes (1978) in rural and urban primary schools given below, it can be seen that a greater percentage of children are studying in Classes II-V in urban areas than in rural areas, while Class I and baby class enrolments remain almost the same. This reflects a better retention rate in urban schools, which could be due to better physical facilities in urban areas, or the better economic conditions of the parents coupled with the desire to get their children educated.

Estimated enrolment percentages (1978)

	Baby class	Class I	Class II	Class III	Class IV	Class V	Total
Rural	5.03	39.30	19.53	14.84	11.95	9.35	100.00
Urban	6.06	38.37	23.82	21.64	18.14	15.57	100.00
Dhaka city	3.60	31.41	20.09	17.78	15.03	12.09	100.00

Source: NFRHRD, *op. cit.* pp. A44-A46.

The percentage of enrolment to school-age population for rural areas in each district generally bears positive correlation with the literacy of the district. That is, the districts with a literacy rate below 20 per cent (1974 census) recorded an enrolment percentage below 40 per cent. The lowest percentage of enrolment for rural areas (26.51 per cent) is recorded in Chittagong Hill Tracts and Bandarbon districts. These two districts are located in sparsely populated hilly region with difficult communication and mostly inhabited by tribal people who are ethnically and culturally different from the rest of the country.

The difference in the percentage of enrolment of age-group population in different districts is quite marked. Moreover, there is a significant difference in literacy rate and enrolment as between different groups of villages (Union) in the same area (Thana).

The districts of Chittagong, Barisal and Patuakhali stand out much above the rest, both rural and urban, in terms of the enrolment percentage of the age-group children (over 70 per cent). The lowest percentage for rural areas is recorded in Rajshahi Division (out of 4 divisions) which is 38.31 per cent, indicating that special efforts will be necessary to bring more primary age-group children to school in this division.

Growth of primary schools. The number of primary schools increased from 29,082 in 1970 to 39,279 in 1975 and to 44,027 (including 3,101 unregistered non-government schools) in 1981. The present policy of the Government is to ensure one school for 2,000 people or for an area of 2 sq kilometres.

Preliminary findings of a school mapping survey show that out of the primary age-group population of 13 million, 87 per cent or over 11 million have access to schools within walking distance, and the rest, numbering about 2 million, have no school within walking distance. The situation calls for early correction.

Problems of non-enrolment and retention. It is estimated that nearly 67 per cent of the primary age-group population are enrolled in schools. Of those enrolled in Class I 60 per cent drop out before reaching Class II, while only 11.83 per cent reach Class V. Further, only 40 per cent of those completing primary education reach the secondary stage. Thus the country has been facing a serious twin problem of low enrolment and high drop-out rate. This is reflected in the stagnating, low literacy rate, which has remained around 22 per cent for almost two decades.

Low enrolment coupled with a high drop-out rate is a complex problem that does not lend itself to easy solution. Widespread poverty and illiteracy are thought to be the root causes. Other causes are the lack of opportunity for preparatory learning, poor physical facilities in the schools, the poor quality of teachers, uninteresting teaching, unrelated curricula, the low quality of textbooks, and the absence of community support.

To grapple with these problems, the Government have been distributing free textbooks and free school uniforms, besides providing free tuition for all. To encourage enrolment of girls, 50 per cent of new teachers are being recruited from among women. (In 1981, about 8 per cent of the primary teachers were women.)

To enlist active community participation and make the parents aware of the value of education both for their children and the community as a whole, an experimental project known as the Community Learning Centre (CLC) has been initiated. The primary school will be converted into a CLC by making it the hub of all community activities – social, cultural, and religious. Besides, home-based activities involving parents and children such as growing vegetables and fruit trees, processing and preparation of food, poultry farming, and small trade and craft development, will be encouraged in co-operation with the extension agencies. Promotion of primary education will thus become a part of community activity.

Supply of teachers and their qualifications. According to data collected by Thana Education Officers, in 1981 there were 164,358 teachers for 40,926 schools and 8,292,421 pupils. It works out to four (usually three to five) teachers per school and one teacher for 50 children. If allowance is made for over-reporting of enrolment (10-15 per cent), together with the fact that the schools run two shifts – one for children of Classes I and II numbering 100-150 and the other for children of Classes III-V numbering 60-70 – with an average daily attendance of less than 50 per cent, there does not seem to be a serious shortage of teachers in the primary schools.

As mentioned earlier, the annual attrition rate in government managed schools due to death, retirement and other causes is about 5,000 as against the yearly output of 3,000 newly trained teachers from the PTIs. The number of trained teachers, therefore, fails to meet the requirement. At the same time there is an undisclosed number of candidates with the Certificate-in-Education awaiting employment as teachers. Recently the Government has decided to fill 10,000 vacant teaching posts from among such candidates and other qualified college graduates having 14 years of schooling.

The table below gives percentages of primary teachers with different levels of education in 1978. It is revealed from the table that 47.9 per cent of woment teachers in the country possessed HSC and higher qualifications as against 33.3 per cent of men teachers possessing the same qualifications.

Percentages of men and women teachers with different levels of education in Bangladesh (1978)

Region	Men Teachers				Women Teachers			
	Below SSC	SSC	HSC	Graduate & above	Below SSC	SSC	HSC	Graduate & above
Rural	9.0	59.3	26.5	5.2	19.9	43.9	31.8	5.6
Urban	3.8	41.0	32.4	22.8	4.8	37.5	37.2	20.5
Dhaka City	2.8	33.3	37.0	37.0	26.9	22.9	38.8	27.8
Bangladesh	8.6	58.1	26.9	6.4	12.2	40.6	34.6	13.3

Source: NFRHRD, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

Curriculum development. Curriculum development is a continuous process which reflects the purpose and content of education in relation to the needs of the country. In the past, curricula at all levels have been subject to review and modification with political and administrative changes.

After the emergence of Bangladesh as an independent country, a 'National Curriculum and Syllabus Committee' was set up in November 1975 with the following terms of reference:

1. attainment of a high standard in the system of education and educational institutions based on national ideals and goals;
2. integration of science and technology in the curricula and syllabi in order to keep pace with the present-day world;
3. drawing up guidelines for preparation of syllabi in the light of the recommendations of the Education Commission (1972-74) for primary, secondary, higher secondary, technical and vocational education and teacher training; and
4. co-ordination of work by different committees set up for the above purposes.

The following objectives guided the National Curriculum and Syllabus Committee in framing the primary curricula:

1. to develop inherent powers and qualities of the individual;
2. to develop a sense of patriotism, justice, dutifulness and discipline in the minds of pupils;
3. to create an attitude of respect for mutual understanding and friendship with all;
4. to develop creative and skilled manpower through knowledge of science and technology;
5. to create a sense of dignity of labour in the minds of the children and inspire them to take an active part in national development; and
6. to develop a system of vocational guidance and self-reliance through education.

In 1981, the Government established a National Curriculum Development Centre in place of ad hoc committees for the purpose of continuous evaluation and development of curricula and for monitoring the effectiveness of teaching methods and materials.

The present curricula at the primary level, in terms of subjects taught and number of hours per week devoted to each subject, are set out in Tables 11 and 12.

Education for handicapped children. There is as yet no clear-cut national policy on the care and education of physically handicapped and mentally retarded children in Bangladesh, although the Government has been supporting such activities by private bodies.

In December 1977, an association styled 'Society for the Care and Education of Mentally Retarded Children (SCEMR)' was established in Dhaka. Two of its objectives were to establish vocational training centres for the educable mentally retarded and persuade the schools to operate special classes for the mentally retarded children.

In the first national workshop held by the Society in June 1980, the following recommendations were made:

1. to have a deliberate national policy formulated by the Government for the care and education of the mentally handicapped children which should be reflected in development plans;
2. to create general awareness in the society through mass media for the special needs of these children;
3. to start a diploma course in mental retardation through collaborative effort of the Institute of Education and Research, University of Dhaka, Teachers' Training Colleges, Medical Colleges and Departments of Psychology of different universities; and
4. To start special classes for mentally handicapped children in as many primay schools as possible.

An institute called Bangladesh Institute for the Mentally Retarded was established in January 1982 by the Norwegian Association for the Mentally Retarded in collaboration with the SCEMR. The Institute is equipped with a vocational training Centre, a toy library and a counselling and guidance service centre.

The Dhaka based society for mentally retarded children is keen to extend its activities throughout Bangladesh and has affiliated with several similar associations in the outlying districts. The society has so far been able to start special classes in four schools in Dhaka, including a school for slum children.

Primary education for special groups. Bangladesh has a tribal population estimated to be 500,000 in the eastern districts of Chittagong Hill Tracts and Bandarban. This is a sparsely populated hilly region with forests and difficult communication. The members of the dominant tribe 'Chakma' are Buddhists, but others mostly do not profess any religion. All of them have their own life style, attitudes, social norms and dialects. There is, however, a sizeable population of Muslim settlers from the plains who live in separate colonies among the tribal people.

The tribal people have been brought under the UPE scheme. According to a survey carried out by NFRHRD, there were 387 primary schools (354 rural and 33 urban) in the two districts with 1,291 teachers. The schools use the normal curriculum and textbooks. However, special efforts are made to recruit women teachers and supervisors from the tribal people by relaxing educational and age qualifications. Residential accommodation is being provided to primary school children in selected schools because of the inhospitable terrain and difficult communication.

Education of disadvantaged children. Primary education in Bangladesh has a total coverage and it has been made free. But the facilities of free tuition and textbooks have so far failed to push up enrolment and retention. This is ascribed mainly to socioeconomic hindrances. About 80 per cent of the population live below the poverty line in terms of minimum caloric intake. The illiterate environment at home prevents children from disadvantaged families from acquiring the knowledge and vocabulary expected of a child attending a primary school for the first time. As a result, even when he ventures out to school, he soon drops out, in the absence of any encouragement from his poor, illiterate parents.

Preparatory learning materials have been prepared and pretested with a view to helping children from disadvantaged families. The materials will be tried out in 100 schools selected as Community learning centres during 1984. The other measures to cope with this problem are adult education to improve the general literacy level in the shortest possible time and enlisting active community support for education. Literacy has been found to bear a positive correlation with the willingness of the parents to send their children to school.

Chapter Four

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION AND ITS LINKAGE WITH THE FORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM

About 33 per cent of children of the primary age group in Bangladesh never go to school, and about 70 per cent of those who do, leave school before attaining the minimum educational standard which they can use in adult life. Dropping-out occurs at all levels, but is concentrated in Classes I and II. The majority of children thus enter adulthood illiterate. Consequently there is an urgent need to strengthen non-formal education programmes, particularly for those who never enter the formal school system or drop-out before completing the Five-year primary cycle.

The main identifying characteristic of non-formal education is that it is performance-based rather than certificate-based. It has loosely organized content, staff and structure and is almost entirely dependent on voluntary participation and part-time help from volunteers. More importantly, it emphasizes the community rather than the individual as the main approach to developing human resources.

Bangladesh has yet to establish a national strategy for non-formal education for the vast multitudes of young children and adults who have eluded the formal system of education. There are, however, individual attempts being made by some voluntary organizations to impart minimum education to this group of children and adults, and prepare them for formal education where possible.

The most widely available source of non-formal education for children of both sexes is the Maktab, located in the premises of a mosque. The Imams who lead prayers in mosques usually give instruction on how to read the Quran and to offer prayers. The Maktabs provide the first educational experience of many children, and for those who do not go to a formal school, the only experience. There are about 150,000 mosques in the country. The mosque-based Maktabs can be more fruitfully utilized for pre-primary education and as feeder institutions for primary schools.

There are three non-government organizations which have been running educational programmes for children which are non-formal in nature but have linkages with the formal system of education.

The Bangladesh Association for Community Education (BACE) has been running 22 'feeder' schools in Meher, a rural union of 24 villages, at a distance of 22 miles from Comilla town. The schools teach the children reading, writing and counting up to Class I (and in some cases up to Class II) in their own vicinity, so that they are ready in due time to join Class II (or Class III) of the local primary schools. Teachers (two-thirds being women) are recruited and trained locally – two teachers per school – and paid a nominal sum as salary. The community contributes towards construction of the school house, donates the land, and gives other support. But this is not sufficient to meet the cost of running the schools, and BACE has to depend on outside funding (average expenditure per student was Tk. 76.00 in 1980). The programme has achieved its objectives of greatly pushing up the enrolment, especially enrolment of girls, at the eight primary schools in the union. This model of feeder school, partly dependent on community support and partly on outside assistance, is still confined to Meher and covers only one out of 4,000 rural unions in Bangladesh.

The Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) runs a mass education programme in two Thanas of the district of Noakhali. It is meant for three groups of people – adults, women and children. The children's programme is called CHIMEC and is intended to reach children, 6-11 years old, from the poorest section of the population. The basic approach of the programme is similar to that of the feeder schools of Meher, but it is less structured and less costly. Each centre is housed in an existing village structure or primary school and employs one teacher recruited from the community on a small pittance, The teachers are given internal training on three modules, each lasting for three days. It is based on the necessity of organizing a centre, co-operating with different field agencies, playing with the children and establishing a climate of friendship and mutual responsibility in the community. The training content is derived from folkore and imparted through drama, songs and traditional dances.

The programme, which is effectively supervised by a team of educated, motivated and well-paid supervisors, is in operation in 13 unions out of 29 in the two Thanas and covers a population of over 300,000. There are 700 CHIMECs in the area with 34,000 children. It is estimated that about 30 per cent of the children completing Class I in a CHIMEC join one of the 133 primary schools situated in the area. Some of the CHIMECs offer vocational training in addition to instruction in the 3Rs.

Another programme worth mentioning is the Underprivileged Childrens' Educational Programme (UCEP) which was started in June 1973. The programme provides second chance education to poor working boys and girls (many of them roaming in the streets without any worthwhile job) nine to ten years old. Presently there are about 8,000 boys and 700 girls attending 18 UCEP Schools in three main cities (Dhaka, Khulsa and Chittagong). All the schools are accommodated in their own buildings or municipal schools used after normal school hours. Most of the schools run three to four shifts of two-hours duration, daily for 290 days a year. (Since the boys must work without vacation, the schools observe no holidays.) There is only one school for girls in Dhaka city, which accommodates 700 children. After completing the 5-year primary curriculum in 2½ years, the children are encouraged to complete the 3-year junior secondary stage in 1½ years. Further, after completing the junior secondary stage, they are entitled to enter public vocational schools or the two UCEP-run trade training schools.

The teachers of the UCEP are carefully selected and their educational qualifications range from SSC to Master's Degree. Their salary ranges from around Tk.300.00 for one shift to Tk.600.00 for three shifts.

Textbooks and all other educational materials are provided free of cost. The children are encouraged to make regular deposits to the UCEP savings scheme, and they can purchase one meal and clothing at subsidized prices. A check is kept on absenteeism and the drop-out rate is estimated at less than 10 per cent.

The programme runs on outside help. Recently a sponsorship scheme has been started with each sponsor contributing Tk.1,200.00 annually towards the cost of one child. With more children the cost could be reduced.

The UCEP is an urban-based programme which seeks to effect a qualitative change in the life of underprivileged children. Compared to the results achieved, the cost is moderate and within the reach of wealthy urban dwellers.

Chapter Five

NATIONAL POLICY AND PLAN FOR UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

The present educational policy envisages increasing the literacy base by effective implementation of primary education as basic education. Specifically, the aim is to expand and strengthen the system so as to cover all 6-years olds (numbering about 3 million) and carry at least 50 per cent of this age-group through Class V by 1987. It is believed that this change will create an educational environment of increased enrolment and retention, particularly in the rural areas, and will eventually enable the Government to embark upon the second phase programme of raising the duration of basic education to 8 years.

With a view to implementing this policy, a massive UPE programme involving two projects – an IDA-aided project covering 42 Thanas and a national project covering the rest of the country – have been under implementation since 1981. The total cost of the two projects over a 5-year period (1981-1985) is estimated at Tk.344.68 crore, the main objectives being the following:

a) Increasing enrolment, particularly enrolment of girls, by improving physical facilities and providing free textbooks and school uniforms;

b) Reducing wastage caused by dropping-out and repetition by providing a better teaching-learning environment;

c) Improving the quality of primary education through better curricula and textbooks and more effective training of teachers;

d) Improving the quality of classroom instruction by providing teaching-learning aids; and

e) Reducing unit cost by improving retention rate and moving towards larger schools, larger class size and more flexible timetables.

To attain these objectives, measures have been taken to expand physical facilities, supply instructional materials and uniforms, increase teaching staff, strengthen supervision and provide recurrent in-service training to teachers.

Physical facilities. The UPE programme will cover all primary schools and Primary Training Institutes (PTIs), with the Academy for Fundamental Education (AFE) closely linked with the programme activities. A recent school mapping survey has revealed that many schools need to be rebuilt or renovated. Furthermore, in view of population growth, new school buildings and classrooms will have to be made available to accommodate children who will be entering the primary stage. (Land will be donated by the community where required.)

Besides renovation of the existing schools and construction of new school buildings, which account for 50 per cent the cost of the IDA-aided project and 25 per cent of the cost of the national project, the following facilities are being made available during the current Second Plan period:

a) With a view to boosting enrolment and attendance, textbooks and learning materials are being made available to children free of cost.

b) Sanitary facilities and drinking water being unavailable in many schools, provision has been made for sinking 19,197 tubewells and constructing 34,499 lavatories.

c) The existing PTIs are being developed by providing them with additional hostel accommodation, classrooms and libraries, and three new PTIs are being established. (In addition to the two UPE projects, there is a separate project for developing the PTIs.)

d) The AFE is being provided with additional hostel accommodation and residential accommodation for the members of the staff;

e) Furniture and teaching aids and equipment are being made available to primary schools as well as to the AFE and the PTIs; and

f) Provision will be made for transport facilities for field personnel.

Increasing teaching staff. The school mapping survey mentioned earlier revealed that in the 42 Thanas covered by the IDA-aided project, the teacher-student ratio was 1:37, although in many schools the class sizes were uneven, being very high in the lower grades (80-120 in Class I) and very low in the upper grades (8-12 in Class V).

While most schools have four teachers, at times only three are available. Since the success of UPE is greatly dependent on the effective use of the teaching staff, regular attendance of teachers will be emphasized and additional teachers will be appointed where necessary.

Strengthening supervision. Inadequate and ineffective supervision of primary schools being a major problem, the present UPE programme has increased the number of Assistant Thana Education Officers (ATEOs) so that each ATEO may have not more than 25 schools under his charge. The ATEOs will be stationed at the union level and will be responsible for counselling parents and encouraging them to send their children to school, improving school-community relations, providing help to teachers, organizing recurrent in-service training with the help of PTI instructors and collecting and compiling educational data. Currently provision is being made for separate office accommodation for the ATEOs.

In-service training. At the moment, opportunities for in-service training for the large majority of primary teachers are limited. On the other hand, the introduction of new curricula, teaching methods and textbooks necessitates continuous in-service growth on the part of teachers, administrators, teacher trainers and supervisors. The main objectives of in-service training are to (a) develop a leadership core to manage and further develop primary education; (b) train different categories of people connected with UPE in the new operational skills so as to stimulate a new pattern of behaviour; and (c) institutionalize a new system of training for staff development as a regular component.

To attain these objectives, the UPE programme provides for training of three different groups: (a) key project personnel and related staff, (b) PTI staff and field administrators, and (c) primary teachers.

The training of primary teachers will be organized in clusters by the ATEOs, who are familiar with the problems of the teachers and the community. There are four to seven ATEOs in a Thana under the overall supervision of the TEO. Each ATEO works with 16-25 schools within his cluster and is supposed to visit all of them at least once a month and organize regular teacher training for the teachers at each school.

The advantages of cluster-based training are as follows:

1. Cluster-level training avoids the costs involved in residential courses and utilizes available field-level officers (ATEOs) to organize the training with Thana-level resources. On-the-job training will be less costly because the teacher will not be away from the school during training.
2. The training is likely to prove more effective. It will be directly based on the teacher's on-the-job experience and needs and will be flexible, enabling the teacher to cope with the problems which arise daily in the classroom and the community.
3. The cluster-based training will enable the teachers to participate in their own professional development. Through group discussion and study they will identify their own problems and become conscious of their own training needs. In discussion they may gain ideas which they may try out on an individual basis. ATEOs visits to schools will not only motivate the teachers but also give them support and feedback to improve their competence in the classroom.
4. Cluster-based training will enable teacher training and support to be linked with the professional supervision of schools. At cluster level the ATEOs will move from school to school observing examples of good classroom teaching and will be able to disseminate them to other schools in the cluster. ATEOs will combine their role as supervisors with a role as constructive supporters and communicators.

During cluster-based training the teachers will be supplied with training leaflets which are being developed on different topics relevant to the teachers' needs and interests. The topics are practical and intended to be of immediate help to the teachers in fulfilling their roles in UPE. Topics range from 'How to use the chalkboard effectively' to 'How to use the school garden for teaching purposes'. The training leaflets are designed as attractively as possible at minimum cost. They are intended to encourage learning through a variety of techniques ranging from story telling, comprehension exercises, simulation, questionnaires, simple multiple choice question-answers, group discussion, stories in pictures, and group activity. They are intended to encourage training techniques which will supplement the conventional lecture-note-taking method by active participation of learners in solving their own problems. The materials have been carefully written, designed and pre-tested.

IMPACT experiment

At present teachers' salaries account for about 98 per cent of the total primary education recurrent expenditure. As enrolment is expected to increase by 35 per cent in the next five years, measures to reduce the burden of teachers' salaries on the budget have to be tried.

To this end, an innovative programme developed in the Philippines and Indonesia and known as Instructional Management by Parents, Community and Teachers (IMPACT) is being carried out on an experimental basis. Under this experiment, children of Classes IV and V will be used for teaching children of lower grades by using specially prepared learning modules based on the curricula and textbooks. The children will learn in small groups of five to ten. The modules give direction to their learning efforts, lesson objectives and on how to learn. The teacher exercises general supervision and provides individual assistance where needed. Furthermore, the senior children learn in peer groups from the modular lessons with the teacher's assistance. The experiment has the potential for much greater enrolment at almost the same cost by reducing dependence on teachers. It is likely to make teaching-learning more effective by making every child an active participant.

School mapping project

Mention has been made of a school mapping survey carried out during 1979-1981 to establish an effective relationship between the distribution of schools and the threshold population to be served by the schools. Through this project the following tasks have already been accomplished: (a) Identification and analysis of the existing network of primary schools; (b) Analysis of the distribution of schools by size and number of classrooms depending on the threshold population; and (c) Assessment of the needs of primary schools for achieving universalization in the context of currently available physical facilities.

Chapter six

CONCLUSION

Universalization of primary education for an over-populated developing country with resource constraints is a difficult task. There is no easy solution, and transplanting models of developed or other developing countries where the socio-economic conditions are different will not work in Bangladesh. Consequently, the nation will have to continue experimenting within the framework of its own situation and resources.

Bangladesh spends a nominal 4 per cent of its development budget on education out of which about 50 per cent is devoted to primary education. On the revenue side, the share of education is around 13 per cent, out of which primary education is allocated about 50 per cent. It is widely believed that unless the share of the GDP for education is increased (currently it is about 1.5 per cent) and unless the allocation for primary education remains at a high level, achievement of UPE is bound to be delayed. Considering Bangladesh's situation, it may be recommended that at least 5 per cent of the GDP should be devoted to education (Unesco's recommendation is reported to be for 7 per cent) with 50 per cent or more of the allocation earmarked for primary education.

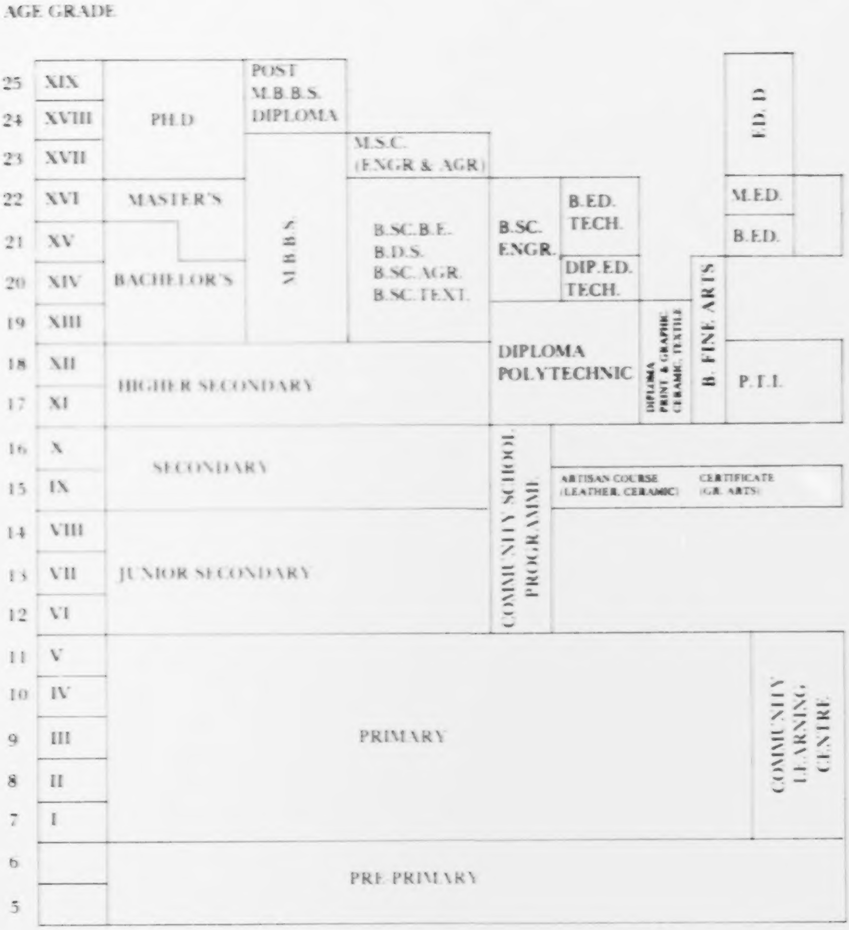
The formal system of education is relatively expensive and fails to bring within its purview a sizeable section of children who cannot be withdrawn from their income earning activities, however modest. It would thus be expedient to develop and activate an adequate system of non-formal primary education which would be linked with the formal system through provision of multiple entry points into the latter. Mosque-based schools and other suitable non-formal institutions need to be encouraged as supportive feeder institutions.

One of the reasons for the apathy of rural parents to primary education is that it does not prepare children for jobs or lead to saleable skills, does not in any way contribute to earning an income or enable children to become otherwise productive. Consequently it is felt that some provision could be made for skill development even at the primary level (possibly in the upper primary grades). To this end, new programmes will have to be thought out, designed and implemented.

Since the problems of education are closely intertwined with the overall socio-economic situation of the country, universalization of primary education cannot be viewed in isolation from total national economic planning. The UPE programme should, therefore, be related to the development efforts of the country, particularly rural development. Positive results in liquidating illiteracy can be achieved quickly only when a multi-dimensional attack on the problem is mounted.

APPENDIX I

The existing educational structure


AGE GRADE
25 XIX
24 XVIII
23 XVII
22 XVI
21 XV
20 XIV
19 XIII
18 XII
17 XI
16 X
15 IX
14 VIII
13 VII
12 VI
11 V
10 IV
9 III
8 II
7 I
6
5
PH.D
MASTER'S
BACHELOR'S
POST M.B.B.S. DIPLOMA
M.B.B.S.
M.S.C. (ENGR & AGR)
B.SC.B.E.
B.D.S.
B.SC. AGR.
B.SC. TEXT.
B.SC. ENGR.
B.ED. TECH.
DIP. ED. TECH.
ED. D
M.ED.
B.ED.
B. FINE ARTS
DIPLOMA PRINT & GRAPHIC CERAMIC, TEXTILE
DIPLOMA POLYTECHNIC
P.T.I.
HIGHER SECONDARY
SECONDARY
JUNIOR SECONDARY
COMMUNITY SCHOOL PROGRAMME
ARTISAN COURSE (LEATHER, CERAMIC)
CERTIFICATE (GR. ARTS)
PRIMARY
COMMUNITY LEARNING CENTRE
PRE-PRIMARY

APPENDIX II

Tables

Table 1. Comparative data on primary education

	1964-65	1969-70	1972-73	1977-78	1980-81
Number of Primary Schools	27,649	29,082	36,537	43,634	44,027[a]
Primary Enrolment (I-V)	4,158,000	5,250,819	7,793,905	8,227,950	8,292,421[b]
Number of Primary Teachers	94,834	113,673	155,742	186,144	178,588[c]

[a] Includes 3,101 non-government (unregistered) schools.

[b] Excluding estimated enrolment of 300,000 in 3,101 non-government (unregistered) schools.

[c] Includes 12,230 teachers serving in 3,101 non-government (unregistered) schools.

Sounce: BANBEIS & Education Directorate

Table 2. Number of primary schools by district and management (1981)

District	Number of Schools Government	 Non-government (Registered)	 Total
1. Dhaka	3,194	281	3,475
2. Faridpur	2,122	332	2,454
3. Mymensingh	2,544	188	2,732
4. Jamalpur	928	82	1,010
5. Tangail	917	108	1,025
6. Chittagong	1,982	153	2,135
7. Chittagong Hill Tracts	621	37	658
8. Bandarban	179	...	179
9. Comilla	2,737	281	3,018
10. Noakhali	1,649	171	1,820
11. Sylhet	3,355	228	3,583
12. Rajshahi	2,040	381	2,421
13. Pabna	1,466	276	1,742
14. Bogra	1,192	126	1,318
15. Rangpur	2,671	442	3,113
16. Dinajpur	1,530	190	1,720
17. Khulna	1,785	237	2,022
18. Jessore	1,587	210	1,797
19. Kushtia	817	134	951
20. Barisal	2,297	264	2,561
21. Patuakhali	942	250	1,192
Total:	36,555	4,371	40,926

Note: In addition to the 40,926 schools noted above, a total of 3,101 non-government schools were reported to tbe in existence in 1981.

Source: BANBEIS

Table 3. Primary enrolment by grade and sex (1981)

Grade	Boys	Girls	Total
I	2,210,886	1,592,464	3,803,350
II	978,941	639,708	1,618,649
III	742,011	475,754	1,217,765
IV	579,949	366,139	946,088
V	440,839	265,730	706,569
Total:	4,952,626	3,339,795	8,292,421

Note: The enrolmenet of 3,101 nongovernment (unregistered) primary schools is not included in this table, but enrolment of 4,371 non-government (registered) schools (926,972) is included.

The boy-girl ratios in 1950, 1960 and 1970 were 80:20; 72:28 and 68:32 respectively. In 1981 the ratio was 60:40.

Source: BANBEIS

Table 4. Classwise distribution of primary enrolment as percentages

Class	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
I	57	50	51	38	39	39	41
II	21	22	20	21	21	21	21
III	13	13	13	16	16	16	16
IV	10	9	9	13	12	12	12
V	–	6	7	11	12	12	9

Source: Ellen Sattar, *Universal Primary Education in Bangladesh* (Dhaka: University Press Limited, 1982), p. 39.

Note: In 1950, the primary stage included Classes I-IV. Class V was added to the primary stage with effect from January 1952.

Table 5. Primary age-group population and enrolment

Year	Estimated Mid-Year Population			Enrolment			Enrolment Ratio		
	Boys (000)	Girls (000)	Total (000)	Boys (000)	Girls (000)	Total (000)	Boys (%)	Girls (%)	Total (%)
1970	5,188	4,790	9,978	3,449	1,802	5,251	66.5	37.6	52.6
1980	6,166	5,802	11,968	4,849	3,189	8,038	78.6	55.0	67.2
1981	6,253	5,990	12,243	4,952	3,340	8,292	79.2	55.7	67.7
1985	6,794	6,438	13,232	–	–	–	–	–	–
1990	7,041	6,675	13,716	–	–	–	–	–	–
1995	7,193	6,817	14,010	–	–	–	–	–	–

Source: Statistical Yearbook (1981) & BANBEIS

Table 7. Urban/rural breakdown of primary age-group population

Year	Urban Areas			Rural Areas			Urban & Rural Areas		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1970	751,366	37,884	789,250	4,436,634	4,752,116	9,188,750	5,188,000	4,790,000	9,978,000
1980	1,139,354	57,446	1,196,800	5,026,646	5,744,554	10,771,200	6,166,000	5,802,000	11,968,000
1981	1,313,760	66,240	1,380,000	4,939,240	5,923,760	10,863,000	6,253,000	5,990,000	12,243,000

Source: Statistical Yearbook of Bangladesh (1981) & BANBEIS

Table 8. Number of primary school teachers by district management and sex (1981)

District	Number of Teachers						
	Government			Non-government (Registered)			Grand Total
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	
1. Dhaka	11,790	1,758	13,548	1,130	206	1,336	14,884
2. Faridpur	7,505	443	7,948	1,301	98	1,399	9,347
3. Mymensingh	9,215	599	9,814	827	73	900	10,714
4. Jamalpur	3,133	271	3,404	306	38	344	3,748
5. Tangail	3,594	276	3,870	448	27	475	4,345
6. Chittagong	8,130	1,119	9,249	588	112	700	9,949
7. Chittagong Hill Tracts	1,589	314	1,903	130	15	145	2,048
8. Bandarban	374	36	410	–	–	–	410
9. Comilla	11,465	851	12,316	1,088	74	1,162	13,478
10. Noakhali	6,689	290	6,979	698	39	737	7,716
11. Sylhet	8,299	1,055	9,304	830	41	871	10,175
12. Rajshahi	7,891	485	8,376	1,566	88	1,654	10,030
13. Pabna	6,359	297	6,656	1,079	31	1,110	7,766
14. Bogra	4,245	403	4,648	476	42	518	5,166
15. Rangpur	10,662	569	11,231	1,794	135	1,929	13,160
16. Dinajpur	5,002	341	5,343	750	62	812	6,155
17. Khulna	6,672	504	7,176	988	76	1,064	8,240
18. Jessore	5,749	459	6,208	784	36	820	7,028
19. Kushtia	2,971	295	3,266	556	33	589	3,855
20. Barisal	8,600	978	9,578	946	120	1,066	10,644
21. Patuakhali	3,831	319	4,150	1,275	75	1,350	5,500
Total:	133,765	11,612	145,377	17,560	1,421	18,981	164,358

Note: In addition to 164,358 teachers serving in government and non-government (registered) schools, there were a total of 12,230 teachers of both sexes serving in 3,101 non-government (unregistered) schools.

Source: BANBEIS

Table 9. Public expenditure on primary education

Year	Enrolment (Million)	Non-development Expenditure (Million Tk.)	Development Expenditure (Million Tk.)	Total Expenditure (Million Tk.)	Per-pupil Non-development Expenditure (Tk.)
1972-1973	7.7	181.9	41.1	223.0	23.62
1973-1974	7.7	254.5	67.5	322.0	33.05
1977-1978	8.2	687.3	56.6	743.9	83.82
1978-1979	8.0	772.7	74.1	846.8	96.59
1979-1980	8.0	811.5	63.8	875.3	101.44
1980-1981	8.3	939.9	239.0	1,178.9	113.24
1981-1982	N.A.	998.7	237.0	1,235.7	–
1982-1983	N.A.	1,439.7	472.4	1,912.1	–
1983-1984	N.A.	1,589.7	663.8	2,253.5	–

Notes:
1. Expenditure figures for 1982-1983 relate to the revised budget estimate for the year.
2. Expenditure figures for 1983-1984 relate to budget estimate for the year.

Source: Statistical Pocketbook of Bangladesh (1979) & BANBEIS

Table 10. Budgets for primary education (Tk.)

		1981-1982	1982-1983 (RE)	1983-1984 (BE)
A.	Non-development Budget:			
	Government Primary Schools	986,394,000	1,420,000,000	1,570,000,000
	PTIs	12,288,000	17,895,000	17,895,000
	AFE	. . .	1,795,000	1,814,000
	Total:	998,682,000	1,439,690,000	1,589,709,000
B.	Development Budget:			
	UPE (National)	158,886,000	311,108,000	432,834,000
	UPE (IDA-aided)	48,234,000	135,796,000	220,000,000
	PTIs	29,849,000	25,518,000	10,000,000
	Total:	236,969,000	472,422,000	662,834,000
	Grand Total:	1,235,651,000	1,912,112,000	2,252,543,000

RE = Revised Estimate; BE = Budget Estimate

Source: Non-development Budget (1983-84), ADP (1983-84) & Directorate of Primary Education

Table 11. Curricula for Classes I and II

Subject	No. of periods per week (30 minutes each)	Length of time per week (hours)	Percentage of time available
Mother Tongue	10	5.00	33.33
Mathematics	6	3.00	20.00
Environmental Studies	5	2.50	16.67
Religious Education	3	1.50	10.00
Physical Education	3	1.50	10.00
Art and Crafts	3	1.50	10.00
Music			
Total:	30	15.00	100.00

Note: There is a prescribed textbook for mother tongue as well as mathematics. For other subjects, there is no textbook.

Source: Ministry of Education, *Report of the Bangladesh National Curriculum and Syllabus Committee, Vol. I: Primary Stage* (Dhaka: Ministry of Education, 1976), p. 279.

Table 12. Curricula for Classes III, IV and V.

Subject	No. of periods per week (35 minutes each)	Length of time per week (hours)	Percentage of time available
Mother Tongue	7	4.08	20.64
Mathematics	6	3.50	17.71
Environmental Studies	6	3.50	17.71
Religious Education	3	1.75	8.86
Physical Education	3	1.75	8.86
Art and Crafts	2	1.17	5.90
Music	2	1.17	5.90
English	5	2.92	14.42
Total:	34	19.84	100.00

Note: There is a prescribed textbook for each of mother tongue, mathematics, environmental studies, religious education and English. For the three remaining subjects, there is no textbook.

Source: Ministry of Education, *Report of the Bangladesh National Curriculum and Syllabus Committee, Vol. I: Primary Stage* (Dhaka: Ministry of Education, 1976), p. 279.

Table 13. Trends in primary education

Year	No. of primary schools			No. of enrolled pupils in primary education				No. of teachers in primary education			
	R	U	Total		R	U	Total		R	U	Total
1973	35,079	1,458	36,537	F	2,541,449	156,479	2,697,928	F	2,462	1,474	3,936
				M	2,934,787	2,125,190	5,059,977	M	94,120	57,686	151,806
1978	41,758	1,876	43,634	F	1,216,207	1,824,309	3,040,516	F	8,834	5,575	14,409
				M	3,112,461	2,074,973	5,187,434	M	164,866	6,869	171,735
1980	39,209	3,183	42,392	F	1,339,380	1,849,620	3,189,000	F	8,646	5,763	14,409
				M	2,812,420	2,036,580	4,849,000	M	130,393	11,338	141,731
1981	40,505	3,522	44,027	F	1,402,800	1,937,200	3,340,000	F	12,061	8,040	20,101
				M	2,872,404	2,080,017	4,952,421	M	145,809	12,678	158,487

An urban area is defined as an area having concentration of at least 5,000 persons in a continuous collection of houses where the community sense is well developed and the community maintains public utilities such as roads, street lighting, water supply, sanitary arrangement, etc. Such areas are generally centres of trade and commerce with a population substantially non-agricultural and having a high rate of literacy.

R = Rural; U = Urban; F = Female; M = Male

Source: BANBEIS

Table 14. Age, sex, grade distribution of pupils enrolled in all grades of primary education and one next higher Class (1981)

Age	Sex	Class					
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI
5	F	169,597					
	M	232,143					
6	F	961,052					
	M	1,315,477					
7	F	382,191	351,839				
	M	552,721	675,469				
8	F	79,623	223,897	318,755			
	M	110,546	205,577	591,407			
9	F		63,970	118,938	161,101		
	M		97,897	148,402	359,568		
10	F			38,060	124,487	167,409	
	M			74,203	127,588	268,911	
11	F				51,259	71,747	46,591
	M				57,994	119,026	136,760
12	F				29,295	15,943	74,061
	M				34,796	48,496	148,312
13	F					10,629	30,446
	M4,408					4,408	44,466
14 (over)	F						22,877
	M46,099						
Total:		3,803,350	1,618,649	1,217,765	946,088	706,569	549,612

Source: BANBEIS

Table 15. Geographical (by regions/provinces) distribution of primary education facilities (1981)

Region/Provinces	Total population of primary education age-group	Number of primary schools	Number of pupils enrolled in primary schools	Enrolment ratio
LOCATION				
Urban	1,380,000	3,522	934,508	67.72
Rural	10,863,000	40,505	7,357,913	67.73
REGION (DIVISION)				
1. Dhaka Division	3,649,658	13,292	2,199,969	60.02
2. Chittagong Division	3,179,507	11,418	2,198,895	69.15
3. Khulaa Division	2,431,459	8,666	1,837,926	75.58
4. Rajshahi Division	2,932,376	10,651	2,055,631	68.92

Table 16. Institutions of primary education

Types of Institutions	Year	
	1981	1980
Total primary schools	44,027	42,392
of which number of one-teacher schools*	0.92%	0.90%
of which number of two-teacher schools*	7.19%	7.00%
No. of Teacher training Institutions for primary education	50	50
No. of In-service Training Institutions	-	–
Curriculum Development Centre	1	1
Any other (specify)	–	–
Schools for physically handicapped	23	23
Schools for mentally handicapped	1	1
Schools for special population groups (orphanages)	99	99
Other Institutions (specify)	–	–

* Teacher/pupil ratio at the primary level is usually 1:40. Primary schools generally have three or more teaching positions, the modal number being five. In view of this, a one-teacher school refers to a school which had one position filled at the time of survey, the remaining positions lying vacant. Similarly, in the case of two-teacher schools, only two positions were filled at the time of survey and the rest remained vacant.

Table 17. Teachers and supervisors for primary education (1981)

Level of basic qualification	Teachers for Primary Education = Number			Number of Supervisors
	Trained	Untrained	Total	
Less than 10 year schooling	11,572	4,501	16,073	–
10 year schooling	74,579	29,003	103,582	5
12 year schooling	34,716	13,502	48,218	192
University Degree	7,714	3,001	10,715	1,959
Total:	128,581	50,007	178,588	2,156

Table 18. Curriculum in primary schools (1983)

Number of working days for primary schools in a year: 211

Number of periods per week : 30 periods of 30 minutes each for grades I & II; 34 periods of 35 minutes each for grades III, IV & V.

Subject	Grades (Specify number of periods under each grade)				
	I	II	III	IV	V
Mother Tongue	10	10	7	7	7
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6
Environmental Studies	5	5	6	6	6
Religious Education	3	3	3	3	3
Physical Education	3	3	3	3	3
Art & Craft	3	3	4	4	4
Music					
English	–	–	5	5	5
Total:	30	30	34	34	34

Table 19. Public expenditure on primary training fiscal year (1983-1984)

	Amount (Million Taka)	%
A. Current expenditure		
i) Teachers' salaries	1527.522	67.81
ii) Administration and supervision	36.483	1.62
iii) Teachers'/supervisors' training	26.519	1.17
iv) Others	240.919	10.71
Total of A	1831.443	81.31
B. Capital expenditure		
i) School building	390.600	17.34
ii) Equipment	30.500	1.35
Total of B	421.100	18.69
Grand Total of A & B	2252.543	100.00

Source: Ministry of Finance and Planning. *Budget Estimate for 1983-84 (Non-development) & ADP (1983-84)*

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1. Universalization of education: access to education at first level by both formal and non-formal means;
2. Education for promotion of scientific and technological competence and creativity;
3. Education and work;
4. Education and rural development;
5. Education and urban development;
6. Educational technology with stress on mass media and low-cost instructional materials;
7. Professional support services and training of educational personnel;
8. Co-operative studies, reflections and research related to educational development and future orientations.

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

CHINA

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE
FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
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Preface

Universalization of primary education (UPE) is one of the major priority goals of countries in the region of Asia and the Pacific. The developing countries in particular, are now vigorously engaged in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans and programmes aimed at making adequate and suitable opportunities for primary education available as soon as possible for all children and young people.

In 1983, as part of a major project under the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) on the Universalization of Education, 12 countries in the region undertook national studies. The national studies were conducted to analyse the stage reached by the countries in UPE, and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level; to review significant new and current developments in programmes and projects which the countries have undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education; and to contribute to achieving the target of primary education for all children. The studies were conducted by national institutes and professional groups under the guidance of high level committees of the Ministries of Education in the respective countries.

On completion of the national studies, a Regional Review Meeting was held in November 1983 which undertook an in-depth analysis of the methodologies of the national studies and examined their findings. The meeting also made suggestions for improving and updating the national studies tabled for review.

Following the recommendations of the review meeting, study teams in the participating countries have revised and updated the national studies. The present publication is an outcome of the collaborative and co-operative efforts of the member countries in understanding the progress made in the universalization of primary education, the nature and extent of problems and issues and their implications for achieving UPE in the region before the end of this century.

This series which provides a comparative view of the position of and progress made in UPE has been published with the view that the countries in the region, in their bid to step up measures for UPE, will find the information, experiences and conclusions useful in pursuing the goal of 'education for all' with a new vigor by drawing on the experiences of other countries with the same goals and objectives.

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Chapter One

GENERAL SURVEY

Historical background

The establishment of the People's Republic of China in October 1949 ushered in a new period of historical development, i.e., the period of socialist revolution and construction. By 1982 there were over 180 million students studying in the colleges and middle and primary schools. Add to this the number of students studying in other kinds of schools, and the total was over 207 million, or 20 per cent of the nation's population. The number of institutions of higher learning has grown at a rapid pace, from 598 in 1978 to 715 in 1982. While the number of middle and primary schools has decreased as compared with the peak years (1977 for middle schools and 1975 for primary schools), most have grown in size, and are more rationally distributed and organized; and teaching quality has in general been raised.

Education has had its ups and downs in the process of successive reforms, readjustment and improvement. Though achievements constituted the major aspect, there is no denying that there have been some shortcomings and even mistakes. The development of education in post-liberation China can be roughly divided into three periods.

The first period (1949-1965) from the birth of the People's Republic of China to the eve of the 'cultural revolution' saw education undergoing a basically healthy process of reform, reorganization and development, and an education system suited to China's needs. However, education suffered a major setback in the years 1958-1961. The main shortcomings and mistakes committed in these years were: doing things without giving due consideration to the actual conditions, going against the objective laws and the tendency to exaggerate achievements. All this resulted in a deterioration of the quality of education.

The second period (1966-1976) was the decade of 'cultural revolution'. This was a disastrous decade which brought the most serious setbacks and losses to the Chinese people in the post-liberation years. The damage done to education can be summed up like this: schools in the cities suffered more than those in the rural areas, and institutions of higher learning were most seriously affected; middle schools suffered to a lesser degree and primary schools were the least affected. Therefore, despite the serious damage done to education, where the schools were least affected – notably primary schools in the rural areas – schools still achieved numerical development although teaching quality plummeted.

The third, and present, period started in 1976 and led China into a new period of historical development.

Because of the various setbacks and losses, education in China still lags behind that of the developed countries. Elementary education is still not universal in many parts of the countryside. In 1982, China had 117,627 million school-age children and 109,579 million of them, or 93.16 per cent, were in school. In the rural areas, 92.25 per cent were in school. Less than half of China's 2,190 counties attained a rate higher than 95 per cent; in 389 counties, the rate was below 85 per cent. The rate of students who did not quit school half way and the rate of up-to-standard pupils were also low. In a few mountain areas, remote border regions and poor areas, only 60 per cent of the children stayed on in school, and only 30 per cent of them were up to standard. This shows that the popularization of elementary education in China is still an arduous task. The Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party and State Council have set forth the goal to popularize junior middle school education in all the cities, and primary school education in most of the rural areas, by the end of the 1980s. The writers believe that this goal is attainable.

On the eve of the founding of the People's Republic, the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference was held in September 1949. Acting as the National People's Congress, it adopted the Common Programme which served as the provisional Constitution. In it were stipulations concerning the nature, tasks, content, system and methods of education in China. These served as the earliest legal basis for the rules and regulations governing China's education. The First National People's Congress (NPC), held in September 1954, promulgated China's first Constitution. Amendments were made to it at the Fourth NPC in 1975 and the Fifth NPC in 1978. All the three Constitutions have special articles concerning education. Due to the rapid development of events in the country, the 1978 Constitution in many respects no longer tallied with the actual conditions and could not meet the needs of the state life. So the Fifth Session of the Fifth NPC held in December 1982 adopted a new Constitution, which attaches greater importance to the development of education in China than the previous two Constitutions. The provisions laid the legal foundation for the future development of education in China.

Article 19 of the new Constitution says:

> The State develops socialist educational undertakings and works to raise the scientific and cultural level of the whole nation.
>
> The state runs schools of various types, makes primary education compulsory and universal, develops secondary, vocational and higher education and promotes pre-school education.
>
> The state develops educational facilities of various types in order to wipe out illiteracy and provide political, cultural, scientific, technical and professional education for workers, peasants, state functionaries and other working people. It encourages people to become educated through self-study.
>
> The state encourages the collective economic organization, state enterprises and undertakings and other social forces to set up educational institutions of various types in accordance with the law.
>
> The state promotes the nationwide use of *Putonghua* (Common Speech based on Beijing Pronunciation).

Article 24 says:

> The state strengthens the building of socialist spiritual civilization through spreading education in high ideals and morality, general education in discipline and the legal system, and through promoting the formulation and observance of

> rules of conduct and common pledges by different sections of the people in urban and rural areas.
>
> The state advocates the civic virtues of love for the motherland, for the people, for labour, for science and for socialism; it educates the people in patriotism, collectivism, internationalism and communism and dialectical and historical materialism; it combats capitalist, feudalist and other decadent ideas.

Article 46 says:

> The state promotes the all-round moral, intellectual and physical development of children and young people.

The Constitution has also stipulations concerning the position and role of teachers as part of the intelligentsia; the freedom for citizens to engage in educational undertakings in the interest of the people; the female and male enjoying equal position and rights in receiving education; the separation of religion from education; the support for education among minority nationalities; the rights and duties of parents in educating their children; the tasks and goals of education; and the power of people's government at all levels in administering education.

As the fundamental law of the land, the Constitution has supreme legal force. But it has only laid down some principles concerning the major issues in education. It is therefore necessary to formulate and promulgate a series of rules and regulations concerning education to ensure the implementation of the provisions in the Constitution. These laws and rules roughly fall into two categories: first, the various educational laws formulated and promulgated by organs of power through legal procedures; second, decisions and decrees formulated and promulgated by government organs, which are compulsory and have the force of laws, such as government decisions, directives, decrees, provisional regulations, provisional rules, regulations, rules and circulars and other administrative rules and regulations. Under this system, the laws and regulations formulated and released by the various localities should not contravene those formulated by the higher authorities.

A new school system

The school system is determined by the age of the students, the social system as well as the political, economic and cultural development. It is also influenced, to varying degrees, by the country's history and its nationalities as well as the evolution and development of school systems in foreign countries. Since the founding of New China, the school system has evolved and grown precisely under the influence of these factors. In the early post-liberation years, the newly liberated areas continued, for the time being, to adopt the old school system with certain reforms. But the old system could hardly serve the needs of the nation's political, economic and cultural construction and social life. In October 1951, the Central People's Government (then Government Administration Council) promulgated the Decision on Reforming the School System, in which a new system was instituted. The new system consisted of children's education; elementary education; secondary education; higher education; political schools and classes at various levels; as well as various remedial schools, correspondence schools and special-purpose schools.

The salient features of this school system were: first, it provided more schooling opportunities for workers, peasants and their children who practically had no access to education in the old society; second, it adequately met the needs of the cadres at various levels and in various fields; third, it affirmed the position of various technical schools and spare-time schools in the educational system. In the mid-1950s and early 1960s necessary revisions were made to the school system and the new elementary education was added in the light of the changes in the situation and conditions. The reform included the suspension of quick-course middle and primary schools for workers and peasants and the abolition of short-term, temporary political schools and training classes with political education as their main task. Meanwhile, the policy of 'walking on two legs'[1] and running schools in diverse forms was implemented.

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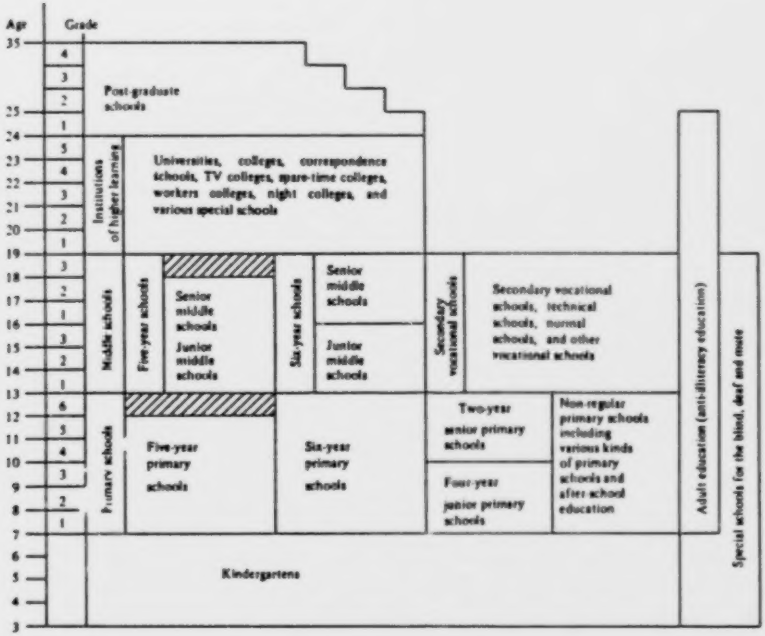
[1] The policy of "walking on two legs" refers to the policy set forth at the Second Plenary Session of the Eighth Party Central Committee held in May 1958 for socialist construction in China. It means the simultaneous development of industry and agriculture, the simultaneous development of heavy industry and light industry, industries run by the central authorities and those run by the localities, production with both indigenous and foreign methods, and the simultaneous development of large, medium-sized and small enterprises.

Later, this policy of simultaneous development was applied to many other fields, meaning that unitary forms and methods should be avoided in all fields of endeavour, and whatever measures to be taken should all be suited to the local conditions so as to arouse the enthusiasm of all. Those educational organizations run by the state should coexist with those run by the collectives. To provide school funds, state appropriations should be supplemented by money raised by the collectives themselves.

Other changes were made during the 'cultural revolution', which in the main consisted of shortening the length of schooling and changing schools for different purposes into schools of the same kind. Now it is clear that such changes were improper and divorced from reality. With the restructuring, reforming and development of China's educational undertakings, the school education system is gradually being perfected. Figure 1 shows the schools system in China today.

Figure 1. The schools system in China


Age
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Post-graduate schools
Institutions of higher learning
Universities, colleges, correspondence schools, TV colleges, spare-time colleges, workers colleges, night colleges, and various special schools
Middle schools
Five-year schools
Senior middle schools
Junior middle schools
Six-year schools
Senior middle schools
Junior middle schools
Secondary vocational schools
Secondary vocational schools, technical schools, normal schools, and other vocational schools
Primary schools
Five-year primary schools
Six-year primary schools
Two-year senior primary schools
Four-year junior primary schools
Non-regular primary schools including various kinds of primary schools and after school education
Adult education (anti-illiteracy education)
Special schools for the blind, deaf and mute
Kindergartens

Children's education is pre-school education which falls into two stages: nurseries for children 1 to 3 years old (not shown in the figure) and kindergartens for those 3 to 7 years old. General education is composed of primary schools and middle schools. Some primary schools follow a five-year system; others adopt a six-year system. Primary schools in the less developed mountain areas and remote regions are divided into two phases, with the first four years as junior primary school and the latter two years as senior primary school, so that those who cannot finish the six-year primary school can choose to study for only four years. Middle schools consists of senior and junior middle schools, each lasting three years. Due to lack of teachers, school buildings and other facilities, the middle schools in many areas still follow the five-year system, that is, three years of junior middle school and two years of senior middle school. Secondary vocational and technical education is relatively complicated. It consists mainly of specialized schools (including technical schools and normal schools); vocational schools (including secondary vocational schools, agricultural schools, agrotechnical schools and schools for finance, accounting, commerce, public health and arts).

Higher education includes universities (comprehensive universities, polytechnics, universities for a particular discipline, and colleges); special schools; post-graduate schools (post-graduates mostly study in research institutes and those affliated to universities); as well as TV colleges; correspondence colleges; spare-time colleges; night colleges; and workers' colleges. These institutions of higher learning differ from one another in their length of schooling. Most of the universities and colleges are four years and only a few of them are five years or longer. Specialized schools are generally two to three years, and post-graduate schools provide programmes of two to four years.

Education for adults, which includes a good variety of schools, consists of spare-time education and schools for workers and government employees who engage in full-time studies with pay. Special-purpose education refers to schools for children or adults who are blind, deaf and mute or suffer other handicaps. Schooling for the blind lasts eight years to enable them receive a junior middle school education. The deaf-mutes study eight or nine years to get a primary school education. Extra-curricular education for school children is an important supplement to the school system and consists of general and specialized education. The former refers to children's palaces and centres, and the latter refers to children's science centres, libraries and spare-time sports schools.

Despite the improvements made in the school system, it still falls short of the requirements of China's political, economic and cultural development and social life, and needs to be further reformed. The government at various levels and experts in the science of education as well as those working in the various schools are studying, both in theory and in practice, and finding ways to solve this question.

Administration of education

China is a unified socialist country and its educational undertakings are run and have developed under the leadership of the government. The Constitution stipulates:

> The State Council, that is, the Central People's government of the People's Republic of China is the executive body of the highest organ of state power; it is the highest organ of state administration. (Article 85).

Under the State Council, there are: (a) the people's governments of the various provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions; and (b) the people's governments of the various counties, cities and districts as well as those of the towns and townships of the various nationalities.

Between the provincial and country governments there are administrative organs representing the province. Although they do not constitute a level of government, they perform their power and functions on behalf of the provincial people's government in places under their jurisdiction. Under the State Council there is the Ministry of Education, and the provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions have their education bureaux; some with a bureau for higher education. The administrative organs representing the provinces and the counties and cities have education bureaux, some have cultural and educational bureaux of committees and offices. Education offices are also set up in the towns and townships. Some provinces and municipalities administer education for adults.

As outlined in its 1982 Report on the Major Tasks and Functions of the Ministry of Education, the ministry:

1. Formulates concrete policies, rules and important regulations for educational work in accordance with the policies, principles and laws, decrees and resolutions adopted by the Party Central Committee, National People's Congress and State Council;

2. Readjusts and develops educational undertakings, reforming the system of education in connection with the reform of the labour system, personnel system and wage system, gradually establishing an education system compatible with the country's economic construction, social development and the actual conditions of China;

3. Draws up a plan for the development of educational undertakings throughout the country, including plans for public utilities and facilities, financial affairs, investment in capital construction and wages;

4. Provides leadership for and checks up on the political and ideological work, teaching, productive labour, sports and sanitation work in the schools; provides leadership and organizes work for scientific research in institutions of higher learning; compiles the basic teaching materials, and sponsors exchanges of experiences gained in educational work;

5. Provides leadership for expanding and improving the ranks of teachers and staff in the schools; gives guidance to the training of administrative personnel at various levels; and supervises the work of the leading members of institutions of higher learning under the Ministry of Education;

6. Provides leadership for foreign affairs work related to education and handles the work of sending students abroad for further studies and of receiving foreign students;

7. Takes care of the day-to-day work of the State Council's Academic Degrees Committee and the China National Unesco committee on behalf of the State Council;

8. Mobilizes the people to popularize *Putonghua* (common speech or standard spoken Chinese);

9. Co-ordinates the relations between the central authorities and the localities with regard to education; and

10. Fulfils tasks handed down by the Party Central Committee and the State Council.

The major tasks, functions and responsibilities of the education departments under the local governments at various levels; provincial, municipal and autonomous regional levels, are similar to those of the Ministry of Education. The only difference is in their content.

Local education administrative departments are responsible to both the local governments at their own level and to the education administrative departments at a higher level, and they ask for instructions when necessary and report to them on their own work.

Primary education

All kinds of educational undertakings, including primary schools, are led and administered according to the above-mentioned administrative system. Under the education administrative departments at various levels, there are special organizations for administering primary education. Under the Ministry of Education, there is the department of general education; under the provincial, municipal and autonomous regional education departments, there are sections in charge of general education; and under the prefectural and county education bureaux, there are offices in charge of general education. As for the education administrative departments and their staff at the country and township (commune) levels, their major task is to provide leadership for middle school, and especially primary school education. The establishment, distribution and development of primary schools is mainly planned and run by the townships and towns (communes) under the unified leadership of the education departments at the county level.

Inspection of schools. At present, there are no unified regulations regarding the formation of inspecting organs and their organizational patterns. The inspecting work can be roughly divided into four categories: (1) establishment of independent and specialized inspecting departments; (2) appointment of full-time or part-time inspectors within these departments; (3) dividing large rural administrative regions into several inspecting areas and appointing 'resident inspectors'; or (4) allowing education administrative personnel to shoulder the inspecting duties without setting up specialized inspecting organizations or appointing specialized inspectors.

China's educational inspecting work is either periodic or frequent. Periodic inspection takes place at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of each term. Frequent inspection allows inspectors to keep in frequent touch with the schools in their areas and give guidance whenever needed. The inspection may be comprehensive or on special subjects and may involve the inspection of an area as a whole or inspection of a few key schools. Generally speaking, inspection by personnel from the central, provincial and prefectural levels, is mostly of key schools and on special subjects.

Inspectors: (1) collect and master materials first-hand, and use them as the foundation on which plans are drawn up, guidance is given and policies are made; (2) discover and solve problems in good time, and ensure the implementation of state principles, policies and decrees; (3) give concrete guidance to the work in schools in the light of available conditions, raise the work efficiency of schools and improve the quality of teaching.

Teacher training. Elementary education is not universal, but because of the size of the population the number of primary schools and the number of pupils enrolled in them rank first in the world. There were 5.5 million primary school teachers in the country in 1982, accounting for 40 per cent of the total number of teachers. There were almost 140 million pupils attending the nation's primary schools in 1982. This means that there is one teacher for every 25 pupils on the average. While this would seem satisfactory, the fact is that because of uneven development some localities have too many teachers while others are short of teachers. To counter this situation, the departments in charge of education in the various regions have made appropriate adjustments.

Elementary education has made rapid progress, and the ranks of primary school teachers have expanded accordingly. In 1944, there were only 836,000 primary school teachers but the figure had gone up nearly eightfold by 1982. The majority of today's primary school teachers have been trained after the founding of New China having graduated from secondary normal schools or junior and senior middle schools. In some culturally backward areas, there are also some primary school graduates teaching in primary schools. Although normal schools trained 3.128 million graduates from 1949 to 1982 and all were assigned to teach in the primary schools, the figure fell short of the actual needs by 1.3 million. Many taught for only a short time in primary schools or not al all; others did non-teaching work at schools, or were not assigned work; and some took up further study or were transferred.

It is estimated that about 50 per cent of incumbent primary teachers are graduates of normal schools and most of the remainder are senior and junior middle school graduates. The number of primary school teachers can, on the whole, meet the requirements in the country but in some mountain areas and in the remote and backward regions, there is generally a shortage of teachers. Therefore, to train and provide teachers for these areas is still a problem that merits attention.

Young teachers make up a large proportion of the primary school teaching force. Most of them studied at secondary normal schools, senior or junior middle schools during the 'cultural revolution' (1966-1976). Nominally, they were graduates of these schools, but in fact they were not up to the level of graduates. Some 3 million are teachers in schools run by the collective.[1] Most of them are educated youths who have returned from the cities to their home villages. They have a heavy family burden and have little time to study. Therefore, generally speaking, their cultural level is rather low. To develop elementary education and raise the educational level it will be necessary to find a quick solution to the problem of the low educational standard of China's primary school teachers. Hence the extreme importance of teacher training.

Secondary normal school education to train qualified teachers for primary schools is being strengthened. Training programmes are being set up for incumbent teachers. The latter method is more important at present, and a fairly comprehensive system of in-service training is taking shape. Educational institutions have been set up in the various provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions; teachers' institutes for remedial and advanced studies have been set up in the prefectures; teachers' schools for in-service training have been established at the country (district) levels; and the townships

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[1] Collectively-run schools refer to schools run by the townships (communes) or production brigades with funds raised by themselves. As the agricultural economy in China's rural areas mainly takes the form of collective ownership, the schools run by these producation units are also called 'collectively-run schools' or 'schools run by the local people'. The state gives subsidies to these schools, so these schools are usually referred to as 'schools run by the local people and subsidized by the state'.

(communes) have training or tutorial centres. Teachers either leave their jobs temporarily (with pay) for further studies or else they study in their spare-time. In the former case, the period is usually one year or six months.

According to the 1982 statistics, there were 2,174 teacher's institutes or schools for advanced studies, averaging almost one for each of the nation's 2,190 counties. There were 1,190,300 primary school teachers studying at teachers' institutes; 77,400 were in schools run by the administrative offices at the prefectural level and 1,112,900 at teachers' schools at the county level. Of these, 83,000 left their post for further studies and the rest studied in their spare time.

Part-time study mostly takes the form of correspondence courses, but broadcasting and TV courses are also adopted. Teachers who have taken refresher courses account for one-fourth of the total primary school teachers in the country. Primary school teachers are urged to further their studies and 'give first place to spare-time education, to self-study and to studying while teaching in the schools'. Facts have proved that this is a practical principle.

Teachers also participate in teaching and research groups. Large schools have sub-groups each devoted to a special subject while very small schools with only one or two teachers can join the teaching and research groups organized by several schools in the surrounding areas. One or two people can be appointed to lead the group according to its size. Central groups are organized by, and composed of professionally more competent and qualified personnel who can give guidance to other teaching and research groups in the locality. Training or tutorial centres at the township and town (commune) level are responsible for working out plans and giving guidance to the teachers who want to take comparatively advanced courses in their areas. The activities of the teachers and research groups are carried out at regular intervals, and members of the groups gather together once every two weeks or once a month for discussion questions that have cropped up in the course of teaching or self-study. They tackle problems in teaching, exchange the experiences they have gained and help one another. In addition, short-term training classes are run during the vacations to train teachers in rotation. The training of primary school teachers has the nature of adult education. The content is determined in accordance with the actual conditions and needs in work. The principle is to combine theory with practice and 'learn what is needed'.

Through various forms of training, the quality of China's primary school teachers is improving year by year but it will take some time for all the teachers to become fully qualified. Even then, there will still be the question of further improvement.

Teaching materials. Teaching materials are compiled and edited by the Ministry of Education in accordance with the teaching programmes for various subjects. Under the ministry, the People's Education Publishing House is charged with the special task of editing and publishing unified teaching materials for the whole nation. This publishing house has the staff to edit and produce teaching materials for different subjects, such as Chinese, mathematics, natural science, politics and so forth. The materials are examined and approved by the Ministry of Education. Because of the volume (20 million copies of textbooks for each subject in each grade of the primary schools) and to ensure the quick distribution of these books, the printing house of the People's Education House prepares the paper moulds which are sent to the various provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions for printing. The Xinhua Book Store which has branches all over the country, is responsible for the unified distribution of these textbooks. Under normal conditions, the teaching materials can reach the hands of the pupils before a new school year starts. The pupils have to pay for the teaching materials, but the price of the textbooks is very low. The first volume of the textbooks for Chinese and mathematics for primary school pupils in 1982 for example cost only 0.24 and 0.29 yuan[1] respectively, just the cost of two eggs. All the parents can afford it.

The teacher's reference books are also edited and published by the People's Education Publishing House. However, in the light of local conditions, various localities also edit and publish more specific and detailed reference books.

The use of the same textbooks throughout the country will help ensure the maintenance of standards. This is conducive to the attainment of the goals in teaching, the implementation of our educational principles and the fulfilment of basic demands. The problem of meeting specific situations and different requirements in different parts of the country is being studied so as to find a solution.

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[1] Approximately 2 Chinese yuan (¥) = One United States dollar

Financing primary education

Most urban schools are run by the state, mostly by the state's educational departments, and some by the various undertakings and enterprises themselves. For instance, the railway departments have a complete education system of their own, embracing universities down to the primary schools. Rural schools are mostly run by the collective in addition to some which are operated by the state's educational departments. There are also a small number of schools financed by individuals or overseas Chinese. All types of schools follow a unified educational policy and have the same training objectives, teaching plans, curricula and teaching materials. The major difference lies in the source of funds in addition to the assigning and transferring of personnel.

Funds for schools run by the state's educational departments are mainly government financial appropriations and special financial allocations from the local government at all levels. Funds for schools run by the various undertakings and enterprises are mainly borne by the units themselves. Those run by the collective are financed by the communes and production brigades, with a certain amount of subsidy from the Ministry of Education. In addition, the funds needed for running the schools come from the students' tuition and other fees and part of the profits derived from the schools' productive labour. The amount of tuition and other fees paid by the students is very small and varies from place to place, ranging from 0.5 to 2.5 yuan per person for a semester. Some collectively run schools do not charge tuition or other fees, and in schools which do charge, those students having financial difficulties do not pay at all. Profits derived from the schools' productive labour differ vastly. Some get only a small amount of money, others a pretty large amount. Whatever the amount of profits so obtained, the money is at the school's disposal and no tax is levied by the government. Tuition and other fees are also at the school's disposal; they are not included in the state budget and so need not be handed over to the higher authorities.

For various reasons appropriations for education in the past were generally quite limited. During the 1949-1979 period, the proportion of education funds in the national economy was 1.19 per cent of the total industrial and agricultural output value, 1.98 per cent of the national income and 5.74 per cent of the nation's total expenditure. In the 1976-1981 period, state revenue increased only 29.3 per cent, an average annual rise of 5.3 per cent; but in the same period, educational funds went up by 102.7 per cent, an average annual increase of 15.2 per cent. The proportion of educational funds in the total state expenditure also increased year by year. While it accounted for only 6 per cent in 1979, the amount rose to 7.5 per cent in 1980 and 10.2 per cent in 1981. Despite this upward trend in the allocation of educational funds, it still falls far short of the needs of developing education. With due consideration for its financial difficulties at present, China advocates running schools industriously and thriftily. Of course, this is not merely intended to make up for the lack of funds, it is in itself of educational significance.

Funds for universalizing primary education. At present, there are several views regarding funds for achieving universal primary education. One view is that the state should bear all the expenses for primary school education and all collectively run schools should be changed into schools operated by the state. Those holding this view say that the government only has to earmark an additional sum of several thousand million yuan a year and the problem of funds is solved. They maintain that this is the only way to ensure enough funds for realizing universal primary education in the 1980s. Another view is that all rural primary schools should be changed into collectively run schools financed by the peasants themselves, with a certain amount of subsidy from the state. These people say that with the adoption of the system of responsibility in production linking remuneration with output, the peasants have become well-off. Since they urgently wish to acquire scientific and cultural knowledge, they would be willing to contribute a certain amount of money for education. In this way, primary education could be developed at a quicker pace and universal elementary education could be accomplished at an early date. The third view holds that it is advisable to follow the current method of 'walking on two legs', that is, the funds needed to popularize elementary education should be contributed by the state, the local authorities and the people. The combined sum total would be considerable. Those who hold this view say that this method is more realistic and is in conformity with China's present conditions; moreover, it has proved effective in practice over the years. Which opinion is more rational is now being discussed and studied. At present, the original method is still being followed, but the funds for education are increasing slightly every year.

Of the state allocations for education, funds, for institutions of higher learning are larger than funds for middle schools, while the primary schools get the smallest amount. The state allocation for primary schools in 1978 was only 27.02 per cent (not including subsidies for collectively run schools), the remaining funds were mainly for the universities, colleges and middle schools. This is quite different from the situation in many other countries. Some people consider this to be unreasonable, but such practice is only natural in view of the actual conditions. Because China must import and use the developed countries' advanced technology and equipment to develop its economy and accomplish modernization quickly, personnel must be trained quickly who can use the advanced technology and equipment. It would be ideal to train them right from the primary schools, but to do so requires a long period of time. It thus becomes an urgent task to successfully run and promote higher education and give it due priority. It is under these circumstances that the state allocates a larger portion of its limited educational funds to higher education and to secondary school education which directly provides the institutions of higher learning with qualified students. This situation will gradually change as the economy develops, but it will require a relatively long time.

School buildings. Because of the lack of educational funds, primary school buildings are not as good as desired. According to the 1982 statistics, primary school buildings totalled 317.53 million square metres, averaging about 371 square metres per school or 2.3 square metres per pupil. This is far below the targets set in the planned floor space quotas.

As a result of the 'cultural revolution' many school buildings have been occupied by other units for years. Although some have been returned in recent years, others are still being occupied. Furthermore, about 9 per cent of the primary school buildings are in a precarious state because they have long been in disrepair. The government has noted this and has allocated the necessary funds but about half of them still urgently need repair.

Chapter Two

STATE POLICY FOR MAKING ELEMENTARY EDUCATION UNIVERSAL

The strategic task for the whole nation has become one of safeguarding the socialist system and pressing ahead with socialist construction. To fulfil this task, it is imperiative to quickly accomplish the modernization of industry, agriculture, national defence and other fields of endeavour. To achieve modernization, the people must be armed with cultural knowledge, science and technological skills; the intellectual development of the workers, peasants and cadres promoted, the ranks of the intellectuals expanded and experts trained in every field.

Primary education is the foundation of the entire educational undertaking and at the same time the starting point for raising the nation's level of cultural knowledge and science and technology. Therefore, after the founding of New China, the Party and the state have all along set great store by primary school education, which is the mainstay of elementary education.

In 1978, the Ministry of Education issued a Trial Plan for Running Well Some Key Middle and Primary Schools. The plan made clear stipulations on the purpose, task, scale, enrolment and leadership in running these key middle and primary schools efficiently. In 1980, the Party Central Committee and the State Council jointly promulgated the Resolution on Certain Questions Concerning the Popularization of Primary School Education and pointed out that the stress should be on flexibility. Recently it was pointed out that as conditions in China's countryside vary, rural education must proceed from the actual local conditions and adopt measures suited to the characteristics of labour and life of the people in the rural areas, the different demands of different places and nationalities, the financial and material conditions, and the level of economic development and the cultural and education foundation of the localities. Therefore, the schools should be at multiple levels and in various sizes and structures. Some full-time primary schools should offer courses according to the syllabi laid down by the Ministry of Education. Primary schools offering only such subjects as Chinese, arithmetic, general knowledge, and ideological and ethical education should also be set up. At the same time, various forms of simply equipped primary schools or teaching classes (groups) should also be set up, in which only the Chinese language and arithmetic were taught, including half-day, every-other-day and mobile schools. In sparsely-populated areas inhabited by minority people and in mountainous, forest and pastoral areas, it was necessary to set up some boarding schools, in addition to increasing the teaching centres.

These facts show that China has for more than 30 years persisted in developing primary education through setting up various forms of schools.

Special purpose schools

Full-time primary schools. The overwhelming majority of the population live in big and medium-sized cities and in the counties and towns on the middle and lower reaches of the Huanghe (Yellow) and Changjiang (Yangtze) River, in the basins of the Liaohe, Songhua, Zhujiang (pearl) and Huai Rivers, as well as on the plains along the coast. These areas have a favourable climate, fertile soil, rich resources and good communications facilities. With the population concentrated in the cities, these areas are politically economically and culturally developed. Prior to the 1960s, the cities, industrial and mining areas, rural towns and some developed agricultural areas devoted their major efforts to running six-year full-time primary schools, while in the vast countryside, the primary schools mainly followed a four-year system. In the 1960s, primary schools in both the cities and the countryside gradually shifted to a five-year system, and today, the five-year and six-year primary schools exist side by side. These have become the major forms in popularizing primary school education in China.

Two-shift primary schools. With the steady development of industrial and agricultural production, the cities have thrived as never before. The number of children attending schools has increased considerably, and the question of the shortage of school buildings and teaching facilities has become more and more acute. In order to solve this contradiction, a two-shift system has been adopted for some urban primary schools. Pupils of each grade are divided into two or several classes and they attend school separately, half in the morning and the other half in the afternoon, thereby solving the question of shortage of school buildings and teaching facilities. On the basis of the experience gained in running these two-shift primary schools in various places, the Ministry of Education issued directives requesting that the curricula and teaching plans for the two-shift schools should differ from those for full-time schools, but the teaching time for the major subjects in two-shift schools must be guaranteed, and the teaching of drawing, music and physical training for the lower and intermediate grades in the primary schools must also be ensured.

The two documents also required that the two-shift primary schools pay special attention to giving guidance to the pupils' extra-curricular activities and assign instructors to help them in this respect. These instructors should be on the payroll as regular members of the school staff. In recent years, as marked progress has been achieved in family planning in the cities, the number of school-age children has begun to decrease. And as school buildings have either been expanded or built in large numbers, the number of two-shift schools has also decreased. For instance, in 1964, there were 7,233 two-shift primary schools in the cities throughout the country, accounting for 35.5 per cent of the total with 104,204 two-shift classes, accounting for 39.4 per cent of the total number of classes in urban primary schools. The number of pupils enrolled in two-shift primary schools and classes was 5.072 million, accounting for 40.9 per cent of the total number of urban primary school pupils. By 1981, however, according to incomplete statistics, the number of two-shift schools in the cities had dropped to 1,541, or only 8.4 per cent of the total number of urban primary schools; and the number of two-shift classes had decreased to 19,863; 8.3 per cent of the total number of classes in urban primary schools.

"Package schools". In the hilly areas in northwest, southwest and central-south China and other parts of the country, the population density is small and the people often live far apart. Usually, there are not many households and children in a village, so it is impossible for each village to run various types of schools with all the grades. Starting from the 1950s, "package schools" were set up in these areas. Primary school pupils and primary school graduates who cannot continue their studies in middle schools in the cities and towns are all enrolled in the same school and are taught in different classes. These schools, which are to the liking of the people in the various localities, have become an effective means for popularizing primary school education and have been improved, perfected and developed in some places.

Taojiang County in Hunan Province, for example, popularized primary education through this method by the end of the 1970s. Supported and subsidized by the state and relying on the strength of the collective, the various production brigades in this county have put up new and up-to-standard school buildings, complete with teaching, sports and public health facilities, including classrooms for primary school pupils, classrooms for children under six and classrooms for spare-time education for adults as well as a fairly big auditorium. The auditorium serves many purposes. Apart from being used for holding school meetings and for holding sports meets on windy or rainy days, it is used by the brigade members for holding meetings or for showing films and organizing other recreational activities as well as village get-togethers. In fact, such schools have become educational and cultural centres of the production brigades.

Now, Taojiang County has popularized pre-school education. The method it employs is for every production brigade to buy a harmonium, some desks and stools and toys. (Some well-off brigades have even made colourful school uniforms for the children to wear on festive occasions.) Then, one or two teachers are selected from among the educated young girls in the brigade and sent to short-term pre-school teacher training centres run by the county. All children from four to six years old are taken to school by their elder brothers or sisters, and the teachers teach them to sing, dance, do handwork and play games. They also teach the children Chinese phonetic symbols and simple addition and subtraction. As the hours spent in the schools are lively and colourful, the children are willing to go there rather than stay alone at home. Through summing up its experience, Taojiang County has found that setting up pre-school classes in the primary schools has four distinct advantages: (1) this method is beneficial to production – since pre-school children must be looked after by adults, a number of women are inevitably prevented from taking part in productive labour if their children have to stay at home. Now with special classes for pre-school children in the primary schools, these women need not stay at home to look after their children but can take part in productive labour; (2) it is beneficial to the commune members' well-being. Women prevented from taking part in productive labour because of their children, will not be able to get any earnings from the collective. Some peasants who are hard up and have to take part in labour in order to earn some money must therefore lock their children up at home or let them play outside by themselves. By sending their children to the pre-school classes and putting them under the care of the teachers, the parents do not have to worry and can take part in productive labour and so increase their family incomes; (3) this method is conducive to popularizing primary school education. In China's countryside, there is the habit of letting school-age girls look after their younger brothers or sisters on behalf of their parents. This inevitably prevents the school-age girls from attending school. The opening of pre-school classes for children like those in Taojiang County has solved this problem and enabled the girls to go to school; and (4) the pre-school children through this method will get used to life in the schools and learn Chinese phonetic symbols and addition and subtraction. This is a help when they enter the primary schools. Therefore, schools with pre-school classes for children in Taojiang County are called 'four satisfaction' schools, because they give satisfaction to the children, the production team leaders, the children's parents and the primary school teachers.

In December 1979, the Ministry of Education called a meeting in Taojiang County, participated by heads of education departments from various provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions, to publicize the experience of Taojiang County. Now, similar schools have also been set up in other places.

Multi-grade classes. In the early days after the founding of New China, the rate of school-age children attending schools in the vast countryside, especially in the remote mountain areas, was for various reasons very low. Even in primary schools of big, densely populated villages, the number of students was far short of the required enrolment for the various grades. Hence, the opening of multi-grade classes, where the pupils of two or three grades in one class were taught separately by one teacher in one classroom. The teaching programme for full-time schools is not applied to such classes, where only such major subjects as the Chinese language and arithmetic are taught, the subjects and the content of the textbooks are simplified and class hours lengthened. At present, full-time primary schools with multi-grade classes are still run in the mountain areas in the north, northwest and central China as well as in other parts of the country. They have also become a major factor in popularizing primary school education.

Mobile primary schools. China has a fairly large area of pastoral, mountainous and forest land as well as large areas crisscrossed by rivers and streams. Usually, these places are sparsely populated. The people live far apart, and few households make up a village or a settlement. Some families even live in the mountains and ravines all by themselves. All this poses problems for popularizing primary school education. As the villages and households are far apart, the children cannot go to study in the schools. Teachers go the rounds of the villages or settlements to teach, sometimes being responsible for several villages. They bring a chalkboard, chalks and textbooks, travelling from one teaching point to another in the villages, where the children are assembled for the classes. Some are taught a new lesson, some are given assignments and some have their homework examined, just as them as in the multi-grade classes. This constitutes the mobile primary schools. Of course, for these teachers the work is strenuous and demands patience and great effort, since they have to trudge long distances every day in the mountainous and forested areas, taking rations with them. In areas crisscrossed by rivers, they make the rounds of villages by boat, and on the grassland, they travel on horseback to the herdsmen's tents, hence the name 'horseback primary schools'. This kind of teaching can only be carried out for half a day or every other day; the teaching plans and content must therefore be simplified to fit such a system.

Simply equipped primary schools. To meet the different needs of the people of various places in their production and life, full-time primary schools have been established in the vast countryside and the peasants encouraged to run simply equipped primary schools by themselves, so as to satisfy the peasants' strong desire to send their children to school and accelerate the pace of achieving universal primary education. These primary schools orient their teaching to the people's needs. They arrange their teaching programme and holidays in a flexible way so that the pupils will, during their years at school or after graduation, be able to adapt themselves to the needs of agricultural production and life in the countryside. From their inception, these schools generally use whatever school buildings, equipment and teachers are available, For instance, they have classes in the local ancestral halls, temples, warehouses or large houses, and the students are required to bring their own desks and chairs. The teachers are from their own localities who, under the guidance and supervision of the government educational administrative departments, teach the children Chinese and arithmetic. The students study half a day and work in the fields also half a day; the primary school pupils doing auxiliary work only. In 1965, the number of such primary schools in the countryside was 842,000 attended by almost 25 million pupils in 1 million classes.

During the 'cultural revolution', these primary schools were converted into five-year regular primary schools. In recent years however, in order to enroll as many peasants' children as possible, the local authorities have restored various types of simply equipped primary schools and used diverse forms to run them. For example, the simply equipped primary schools restored in Fangcheng Country, Henan Province, have dropped from being full-time primary schools for various reasons, their aim being to prevent the emergence of new illiteracy. A new situation has emerged in the countryside after the adoption of the system of responsibility in production. To meet the needs of this situation, Laian County in Anhui Province in 1980 ran a number of 'slack farming season' primary schools whose task was to enroll school-age children, from seven to 15 years old, who could not go to full-time schools because of financial difficulties. In these schools, the two terms of a school year were divided into three phases: The first phase began on 1 October and ended on 25 December of the lunar year; the second phase was from 10 January to 15 March; and the third phase lasted for one month (1-30 July) which was a period for reviewing the lessons learnt. During this time the students studied five hours a day and had one holiday a month. For the whole school year, they studied 180 days with a total of 720 school hours of lessons. After five years' study, the students basically reached the level of primary school graduation. These schools mainly taught Chinese and arithmetic. On holidays and after school every day, the students were organized to take part in auxiliary labour.

Yangyuan County in Hebei Province realized universal primary school education in the 1960s. Their main experience was to arrange teaching according to the requirements of different farming seasons in a year. During the busiest farming season, the schools suspended classes so that the students could help with the farm work; during the busy farming season, the students went to school earlier than usual and attended a whole day's classes in the morning so that they could take part in farm work in the afternoon; during the less busy farming season, some students could ask for leave to do farm work for one half day or a full day in a week and the teachers would help them make up for the lessons they missed in the morning, at noon or in the evening; during the slack farming season, the students studied at school all day long.

Full-time boarding schools and tent schools on the grassland. China has vast grasslands where the Mongolian, Tibetan, Kazak, Tajik, Yuku and other minority nationalities engage in livestock breeding. Even today, most herdsmen lead a nomatic life and move from place to place in different seasons, without any fixed settlements. In order to speed the quality of teaching, the state allotted special funds for developing education and setting up schools at selected spots on the grasslands. The herdsmen's children could study in these schools with their expenses on food, clothing, lodging and tuition all paid by the government. The students could live and study in the schools, but since the herdsmen led a hard life and were short of labour force, some of them would rather keep their children at home than send them to the boarding schools dozens and sometimes hundreds of kilometres away. The children too, did not want to leave their parents. In view of this, the state set up tent primary schools. Teachers are provided with a large tent and two horses so that they can move from place to place with the herdsmen and teach their children.

Controlled population growth

Runaway population growth has brought immense pressure on the popularization of primary school education. It is estimated that the number of people born after liberation accounted for 63 per cent of the nation's total population today. At the beginning of the 1970s, the annual enrolment of primary school pupils exceeded 30 million. At present, the number of primary school pupils has topped

140 million. At the end of the 1950s, the state took note of the problem and immediately set out to control population growth. The state advocates family planning and stresses that, except for special cases which are granted approval, married state functionaries and workers should have only one child. This principle was also advocated in the countryside. For those who really have difficulties and wish two children, arrangements may be made with approval from the government quarters concerned. But under no circumstances are third births allowed. Family planning is also encouraged among the minority nationalities, but more lenient measures are taken towards them.

The present aim is to keep the annual natural population growth rate under 13 per thousand which means the total population of the 29 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions must be kept at around 1.06 billion by 1985. Especially since the 1970s, remarkable results have been achieved in the work of family planning. The natural growth rate of population fell from 26 per thousand in 1970 to below 12 per thousand in 1980. In those 10 years, an accumulative total of 60 million fewer people were born. This figure is equal to the population of a medium sized country. Besides enforcing strict family planning and a system of examination and approval, China also adopts other concrete measures to control population growth. In the cities, for instance, preferential treatment and awards are given to one-child families. Women workers all have 56 days of maternity leave, but now one-child mothers enjoy six months of maternity leave with full pay. One-child families can receive 5 yuan worth of monthly nutrient subsidy drawn from the welfare funds of the workers and staff members. In some cities, one-child families are given priority in the supply of goods in great demand.

In addition, in view of the fact that some people, affected by the old ideology that men are superior to women, violate family planning in order to rear male children, the state adopts resolute measures to protect girl babies and their mothers. To counter the outdated idea of 'rearing sons in order to have someone to rely on in one's old age', the government calls upon the whole society to actively run various forms of undertakings to support the old and help those old people who have lost their working ability and have no one to rely on. All these measures effectively guarantee the smooth implementation of China's family planning.

Educational policy

In popularizing primary education, the government adheres to the principles that (1) men and women enjoy equal rights in education; (2) all nationalities in the country enjoy equal rights in education; and (3) religion must not interfere with education.

China was for a long time under the feudal system and the phenomenon of regarding men as superior to women was the norm, which was also manifested in culture and education. Even after the 1911 Revolution, because the political, economic and social status of men and women was still unequal and the influence of feudal ideology had not been eradicated, most girls were still denied the chance to go to school. After the founding of New China, efforts were made to do away with this irrational phenomenon. To accomplish this, equality between men and women is guaranteed by state legislation and policy.

Since 1954 the Constitution has stipulated that women enjoy equal rights with men in all spheres of political, economic, cultural, social and domestic life. The state protects marriage, the family and the mother and child.

Due to the deep-rooted feudal legal concept that women had no right to inherit property in old China, many parents in the rural areas do not wish to spend money on the education of their daughters and do not send them to school, because they grow up, are invariably married off and will not be counted as members of their families. After agricultural co-operatives were set up, the situation has improved somewhat. However, because the women are required to participate in collective productive labour to increase family income, girls are often charged with the task of doing household chores. This virtually amounts to depriving them of their rights to education.

In the 1970s, almost all urban girls attended schools. In the countryside, through repeated publicity and mobilization by the educational administrative departments and schools, most parents also sent their children to school. However when any auxiliary labour was needed the parents invariably ordered the girls to quit school. As a result, large numbers of girl students could not continue their studies. The problem still exists and the state is working on a law on primary school education to ensure the retention of girls.

China is a multi-national country with more than 50 nationalities. In 1956, moves were made to help those minority nationalities which did not have a written language, to create their own language. The Minority Nationalities Spoken and Written Languages Research Institute under the Chinese Academy of Sciences began to work out tentative languages for minority nationalities and popularized them on a trial basis. In 1974, the State Council instructed that all localities and departments should take effective measures to solve the problems arising from the work of popularizing education in the border and minority nationality areas and strive to accomplish the task of popularizing five-year primary school education in the rural areas at an early date.

In the early 1950s, the state appropriated a sum of money for the development of education among the minority nationalities, and this is still the case at present. In February 1981, the Ministry of Education and the State Nationality Commission convened a Nationality Educational Working Conference which decided to strengthen normal education for the minority nationalities, actively train teachers from among the minority peoples in the various localities, continue to mobilize and organize teachers in the inland provinces to teach in minority nationality areas. Active efforts are being made to solve the shortage of teachers in the minority nationality areas in accordance with this decision. In addition, in the past 30 years and more, the state has worked out separate written language schemes for the Zhuang, Yi, Dai, and other nationalities, popularized it on an experimental basis and put it into use in the localities concerned. Written language reform schemes have also been worked out for the Uygur, Kazak and other minority nationalities and popularized on a trial bais. Tibet, Xinjiang Inner Mongolia, Qinghai and Jilin (mainly in Yanbian) have set up their own nationality education publishing houses which compile, translate and publish textbooks in the languages of the minority peoples. Chinese language teaching materials as well as reference books for teaching have also been published. All this ensures that the minority peoples will use and develop their own languages.

In short, the cultural and educational undertakings in China's minority nationality areas have undergone tremendous changes. For instance, in Tibet, Sichuan, Qinghai, Gansu, and Yunnan where Tibetans live, there was not even a single school before liberation.

But now a complete educational system has been set up, from kindergartens up to universities and colleges. Inner Mongolia, Yinjiang, Gansu Guangxi and Ningxia have caught up with or approached the inland provinces in popularizing primary school education. The Korean nationality which has the fine traditions of attaching great importance to education has the highest level of education among China's various minority nationalities. The rate of school-age children attending school in 1944 just before liberation was only about 50 per cent in the Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture in northeast China. The figure reached 92 per cent in 1951 and universal primary education was realized in 1952. Now efforts are being exerted to make secondary education universal.

The freedom of religious belief is one of the fundamental rights of China's citizens. Explicit stipulations have been laid down in the Common Programme and the Constitution adopted by the National People's Congress on several occasions. As China is a socialist country upholding the materialist world outlook, it must correctly handle the relationship between religion and education.

The government has instructed that the teaching of religious doctrine should not be taught at school. No restrictions should be imposed on the students who attend services or learn creeds after school. The Constitution adopted in 1975 and 1978 stipulated: 'Citizens enjoy freedom to believe in religion, and freedom not to believe in religion and to propagate atheism'.

Regulations for full-time schools and reforming the school system. The period of study in full-time schools during the 1950s was usually five years and children entered school at the age of seven.

To divide full-time primary school education into four years for the lower grades and two years for the higher grades, as was done just after liberation, was quite compatible with China's actual conditions. Especially in the cities, children enter the primary schools at the age of seven and study for six years, first in the primary schools and another six years in the middle schools. When the students graduate, they are 18 years old, which is the right age for going to work. If the length of schooling for primary schools is changed to five years, and the length of schooling for middle schools to four or five years, then students will graduate from the middle schools at the age of 15 or 16, which means they are still not grown-ups. They can do auxiliary labour in the rural areas, but they can hardly find work in the cities. The reasons: first, China is a socialist country, and factories and enterprises usually do not employ child labourers; second, since the beginning of the 1960s, the problem of employment has cropped up for young people under 18 years old. If the length of schooling for primary and secondary school education is shortened, it virtually amounts to artificially expanding the contingents of jobless educated youth and increasing the burden on society; and third, to lengthen the period of schooling gives the students the opportunity to absorb more basic knowledge and thus raises the scientific and cultural level of the young people making up the social labour force, enhances the quality of work and helps expedite the modernization drive.

In view of the fact that there is still a shortage of school buildings, equipment, teachers and teaching materials, it is difficult at present to change all the primary schools into the six-year schooling system. The Resolutions on Some Questions Concerning the Popularization of Primary School Education, issued jointly by the Party Central Committee and the State Council in December 1980, stipulated that preparations are being made to gradually change the length of schooling of primary and middle schools into a 12-year schooling system. The five- and six-year system for primary schools will exist side by side for a period of time in the future. In the cities, primary schools may first follow the six-year educational system. Primary schools in the rural areas may not change for the time being.

Textbook production. Under the impact of the 'cultural revolution', the People's Education Publishing House under the Ministry of Education was closed down in 1968. During this time the textbooks for middle and primary schools were edited, published and supplied by the various provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions themselves and no unified national textbooks were available.

In 1977, the Ministry of Education began organizing forces to compile and edit unified national textbooks of various subjects for the use of primary and middle school students. At the same time, the People's Education Publishing House resumed its work, thus putting the work of editing, publishing and supplying textbooks back on the right track. In 1978, the primary schools throughout the country began using the newly edited teaching materials. In 1980, the editing of national textbooks for the full-time primary schools adopting the five-year schooling system was completed, and these textbooks were published and supplied by the People's Education Publishing House to all parts of the country. Following this, this publishing house also started editing the teaching materials for primary schools adopting the six-year schooling system. These textbooks have now been published and supplied. In addition to this the People's Education Publishing House is busy editing the teaching materials for music and the fine arts. In 1979, the Ministry of Education issued a circular which said that schools could trial implement the two draft teaching programmes on music and on the fine arts for the full-time primary and middle school. The circular urged the various localities to edit teaching materials for these subjects for their own use and added that national textbooks would be supplied from 1981.

Training primary school teachers. Before the 'cultural revolution', the various localities strictly abided by the policies laid down by the Ministry of Education on the training of teachers, adopted concrete measures to this effect, solved various kinds of problems relating to the quantity and quality of primary school teachers and ensured the normal progress of China's elementary education. The 'cultural revolution', however, interfered and sabotaged the series of regulations governing work in this field. Spare-time training schools and correspondence normal schools for the primary school teachers were all suspended, and in some places the secondary normal schools were also closed down.

In 1977, the Ministry of Education after summing up the views of the representatives at the forum on the training of middle and primary school teachers in Beijing, issued a circular on the ways of strengthening the work of training teachers working at their posts. By 1979, teachers' in-service training networks had been established at the provincial, prefectural, county, commune and school levels throughout the country. A total of 1.375 million primary school teachers had attended the training classes; 47 per cent of the total number of teachers who should take part in these training classes.

In 1978 the State Council said that the educational administrative departments at the county level and above should be in charge of the administration and transference of teachers in the state-run middle and primary schools under the unified leadership of the Party Committee. The natural depletion of teachers in the state-run schools should be replenished in full by teachers selected by the educational administrative departments from the schools run by the various localities in the same year, and the county educational administrative departments should make an overall plan in selecting such teachers. The appointment, dismissal and transference of teachers from the schools run by the localities should be carried out with the approval of the county educational administrative departments.

In 1979, the Ministries of Education and Finance issued a joint circular which said that, since the selling prices for the major non-staple foods had gone up in the country, the teachers and staff members of the middle and primary schools run by the localities would be subsidized according to the standard of subsidies given to the workers and staff members throughout the country.

A joint circular issued in October 1979 by the Ministries of Education, Finance and Grain, the State Nationalities Affairs Commission and the State General Labour Administration said that all the teachers and staff members of the middle and primary schools run by the localities in the 163 counties and cities in the border areas would from that year be turned into teachers and staff members of state-run schools. The circular also made stipulations with regard to the conditions, ways of examination, salary and the way of counting the years of service of locally run school teachers who would be turned into teachers of the state-run schools.

Regulations made in 1980 stipulated that the task of secondary normal schools was to train primary school teachers, school teachers and child-care workers. The length of schooling was to be either three or four years. The trainees should be recruited from among junior middle school graduates or those youth with the same educational level. The size of the school should not be too large; in principle there should be at least 12 classes but not more than 24 classes, with 40 students in a class. The period of schooling should be no less than nine months in a year. Two weeks should be set aside for productive labour and two and a half months for the winter and summer vacations. These schools should offer such courses as politics, Chinese and the method of teaching Chinese, arithmetic and the method of teaching it in primary schools, physics, chemistry, biology, the method of teaching natural science in primary schools, foreign language, geography, history, psychology, pedagogy, physical culture, music, the fine arts and practice in teaching. Minority nationality normal schools should in addition offer a course in their own languages.

The basic organizational form of education for secondary normal schools was classroom instruction. The principal of the school was chosen by the educational administrative department of a higher level and appointed by the local government. The principal is in charge of the school's administration. The Party organization in the school had the responsibility for guaranteeing and supervising the administrative work of the school. The students' union should, under the leadership of the Party organization and the administrative department of the school, unite with all the students so as to help them to be good in ideology and ethics, study well and keep fit. The trade union should, under the leadership of the Party organization of the school, assist the administrative department and conscientiously do ideological and political work, the work of unity and welfare among the teachers and staff members of the school.

In 1981 the salaries of the middle and primary school teachers were readjusted upwards. This, combined with the campaign to 'respect the teacher and love the students' has greatly fired the enthusiasm of the primary school teachers and will spur them on to contribute their bit to making China's elementary education universal.

Chapter Three

PROJECT AND PLAN OF UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

In 1949, it was stressed in the first national conference for educational work that education must serve for the construction of the country; schools should be opened to workers and peasants; and primary education developed.

In the first three years after the founding of the New China, the educational cause went through the period of reformation, rectification and development; achieved certain success and made some progress. The primary school pupils increased by 101 per cent but during this period there was no unified developmental plan for the national educational cause due to lack of experience.

First Five-Year Plan (1953-1957). The first five-year plan began in 1953 and instructed that primary education should have the character of national compulsory education. The number of years set for compulsory education would be extended step by step. Those who could enter a higher school for advanced studies were only a small part. Most of them should be engaged in industrial, agricultural and other productive labour. During the period the number of pupils should be controlled to 50,000,000.

Because of the scale and speed of industrialization, the development of science, culture and education could not be completely carried out according to the original plan. The scale and speed of educational development required suitable enlargement and acceleration. It had fallen behind economical construction and needed to be changed. In the districts where production developed more quickly, the enrolment rate of children reached above 80 per cent. By 1956 the enrolment had reached more than 63,400,000. This created a shortage of teachers, bad quality teaching and crowded school buildings.

Second Five Year Plan and Three Year Readjustment Period (1958-1965). Rapid industrial development and population growth has continued into the 1980s making planning and the meeting of objectives very difficult. The Party Central Committee and the State Council made a decision in 1980 that primary education should be made universal before 1990 and it must be accomplished in advance in the regions where the economy had been developed and the educational foundation was better. Premier Zhou Enlai pointed out that the country must strive to get rid of illiteracy among the young people and the people in the prime of their lives. This task would be very arduous, formidable and urgent in the national educational front. All regions must actively create conditions to make more school-agers go to school. Enrolment in primary schools is predicted to be 130,000,000 in 1985 and by that date every effort will be made to make middle school education universal.

The present system of management. At present, under the prerequisite for a national unified plan the system of management is carried out at different levels. There is a combination between higher and lower level and integration between all parts in the management of the planned work for education. The policy, task, scale, and speed of implementation will be decided as a whole by the state.

Local plans and departmental plans are administered by the People's Government of every province, municipality and autonomous region and the concerned departments of the State Council. The plan at the basic level is separately supervised by the responsible department of schools.

Chapter Four

ANALYSIS, STUDY AND EXPLANATION OF SOME PROBLEMS

Before liberation the enrolment rate in primary schools was only a little over 15 per cent, but from liberation to the year 1982, it has increased to 93.2 per cent. This achievement should not be separated from the development of the national economy. For various reasons this has been an uneven and undulating rate of growth over the past 30 years. This has resulted in constant readjustment and reorganization. Although universal primary education has not yet been achieved there has been a steady rise in the quality of education.

Can it be said that if the economy is developed and the people's living standard raised, primary education will be popularized automatically without subjective efforts? The answer is negative. Recorded statements of provincial administrators indicate that relatively poor and isolated counties with good leadership and community support have come as near, or nearer to universalized primary education than some prosperous areas that show little concern for primary education and do not support it.

Enrolment is now above 93 per cent, but while only 7 per cent of school-age children are not attending school the rate of new enrolments has gradually decreased. In the first several years, it increased by nearly 10 per cent every year. Both in 1980 and 1981 there was no increase. In 1982 it increased by only 0.2 per cent. This shows that it is becoming more and more difficult to reach the objective of universal primary education. In 1982, enrolment was as follows:

	Urban	Rural
	(Per cent)	
North China	99.06	95.91
Northeast	98.41	95.70
East China	99.76	93.40
Middle South	99.92	94.67
Southwest	98.80	86.39
Northwest	98.58	82.27

The difference between urban and rural enrolment is universal. In four regions the rural enrolment is not only high but it also exceeds the average for the whole country. It is the rural areas of the Southwest and Northwest regions, which are below the national average. In these two large regions, there are comparatively few towns, and smaller population with most of the population being rural. Because their rural enrolment is low, it dragged down the average of the whole country. The 1982 census showed there were about 200,000,000 people living in the cities, towns and counties which made up 20 per cent of the population of the whole country. Schoolage children numbered 15,300,000 of whom about 15,200,000 had entered school. The enrolment was 99.21 per cent. The total rural population was about 800,000,000 making about 80 per cent of the total population. There were about 102,000,000 schoolagers of whom 94,000,000 had entered schools. The enrolment was 92.25 per cent showing that there is a great difference between urban and rural enrolments.

The census also showed that the focal point for universalizing primary education of the country is in the rural areas with the most difficult points being the mountain areas, outlying areas and the areas inhabited by minority nationalities.

In 1957, girls only made up 34.5 per cent of the total pupils of primary schools. By 1978 it reached 44.9 per cent and in 1982, 47 per cent. While there is only a 3 per cent difference in the enrolment rates of boys and girls, because girls take part in auxiliary family labour more often, they are frequently not promoted to the next grade. Because of repeating the year's study continously and becoming older and older, they become more unwilling to go on studying than boys.

In the past few years, there has been a saying 'three, six, nine', meaning enrolment has reached about 90 per cent, the rate of pupils at schools is about 60 per cent but the rate of qualified graduates is only 30 per cent. This is more serious in country schools. Recent statistics indicate that an average only about 50 per cent complete the primary school course. In this aspect, the difference between urban and rural areas appears more obvious. Generally speaking, the urban rate is better, where most of the pupils not only finish study in primary school, but also reach the qualifying standard. It is worse in rural areas where, in a few districts, the rate of qualified pupils is below 10 per cent. There are many reasons for this but on the whole it reflects the low quality of education. According to the stipulation of our country, a pupil at primary school who fails in either Chinese or mathematics cannot go up to the next grade. Besides the over-age pupils in grade I who were late entering schools, the over-age pupils of other grades increases every year. A decline of the over-age pupils in grade III was because there were many pupils who left school half way. According to the reflection from the investigation, most of the over-age pupils from 12 to 15 years old became worse in class because they studied badly and didn't observe the displine. Most of them had poor marks in study. Their inferiority complex and the teachers' inability to choose suitable educational methods according to their characters caused some of them to become mischievous. According to the 1982 statistics, there were 272,695 million over-age pupils among the 1,397,204 million pupils at school in the whole country, which made up 19.5 per cent. According to the reality of our country, there is both a good and a bad side about over-age pupils. The good side is that over-age pupils are admitted in primary schools, which could, in turn, reduce the illiteracy in young and middle-age people in the future. While they are young enough, they can be given a primary school education.

There are a lot of reasons for the low quality of education, among which are the problem of insufficient funds, equipment and textbooks, and the lack of administrative leaders of schools and management: but one of the most conspicuous problems is the teacher problem.

The teacher quality can be improved with better training and improved conditions.

The Minister of the Central Ministry of Education has proposed the main measures as follows:

1. Different places can plan on the basis of actual conditions of their locality to popularize primary education and fulfil the task down to counties, countryside and brigades. This is a national programme and after the programme has been defined, it must be carried through.

2. Through educational legislation, to guarantee to realize compulsory education which has been stipulated in the constitution of China. Although stipulated in related legal clauses in the past,

there is still no complete educational legislation for primary compulsory education. Recently, 'The Legislation for Universal Primary Compulsory Education of the People's Republic of China (draft)' was drawn up. After the legislation has been discussed and revised back and forth, it will be submitted to the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress for examination and approval, then announced and implemented.

3. To raise the quality of primary education, demands the establishment and smooth running of the central primary schools which are organized by the countryside and communes. They must carry out the Party's educational policy in an exemplary way, becoming the centres of primary educational research, teacher training, and the production of teaching apparatus, books and reference materials.

4. One of the most important measures in raising educational quality, is to develop pre-school education, so that the children can get education before they attend school. Therefore, not only should the educational departments set up demonstration kindergartens, but the success depends on factories, mines, enterprises, armies, residential districts and communes, and brigades in the countryside running kindergartens, at the same time, supported by the masses to organize them. It is planned to set up at least one pre-school normal school in most of provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions before 1985 to train new pre-school teachers and strengthen the training for in-service teachers. The vocational high schools can also run pre-school normal classes. Pre-school normal schools and teacher training schools must undertake the task to train in-service teachers.

5. By further raising the living standards and social position of primary school teachers, it is hoped to establish a steady, qualified rank of primary school teachers.

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

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Preface

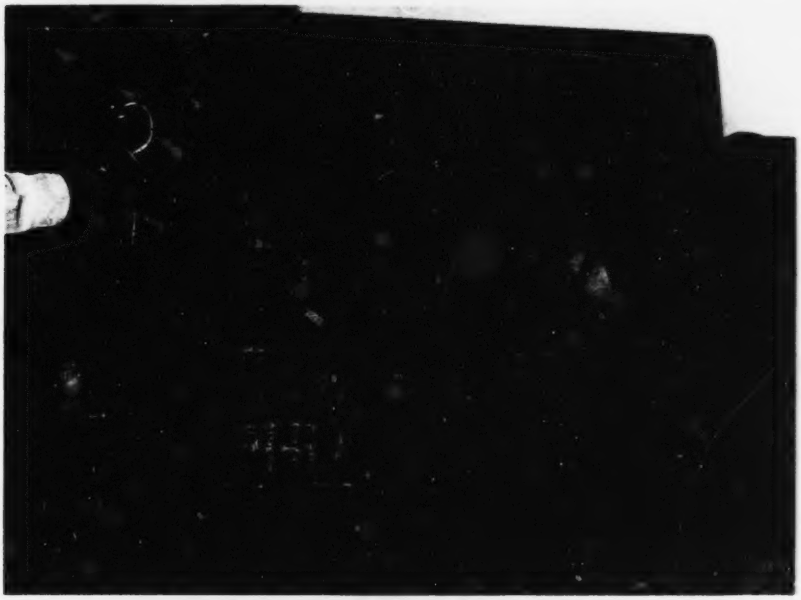
Universalization of primary education (UPE) is one of the major priority goals of countries in the region of Asia and the Pacific. The developing countries in particular, are now vigorously engaged in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans and programmes aimed at making adequate and suitable opportunities for primary education available as soon as possible for all children and young people.

In 1983, as part of a major project under the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) on the Universalization of Education, 12 countries in the region undertook national studies. The national studies were conducted to analyse the stage reached by the countries in UPE, and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level; to review significant new and current developments in programmes and projects which the countries have undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education; and to contribute to achieving the target of primary education for all children. The studies were conducted by national institutes and professional groups under the guidance of high level committees of the Ministries of Education in the respective countries.

On completion of the national studies, a Regional Review Meeting was held in November 1983 which undertook an in-depth analysis of the methodologies of the national studies and examined their findings. The meeting also made suggestions for improving and updating the national studies tabled for review.

Following the recommendations of the review meeting, study teams in the participating countries have revised and updated the national studies. The present publication is an outcome of the collaborative and co-operative efforts of the member countries in understanding the progress made in the universalization of primary education, the nature and extent of problems and issues and their implications for achieving UPE in the region before the end of this century.

This series which provides a comparative view of the position of and progress made in UPE has been published with the view that the countries in the region, in their bid to step up measures for UPE, will find the information, experiences and conclusions useful in pursuing the goal of 'education for all' with a new vigor by drawing on the experiences of other countries with the same goals and objectives.



I am in Class I; but I fully understand 1 and 1 makes 2

Craftwork–Earn while you learn

A field trip—such outdoor educational activities are of immense value in enriching the children's experiences

Photographs supplied by courtesy of
the National Council of Educational Research and Training
New Delhi

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Chapter One

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND STRUCTURE OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Introduction

India has a long tradition of education, both of formally organized institutions such as the Universities of *Takshashila* and *Nalanda*, as well as the less formal, such as the hermitages where great teachers took charge of their wards. The education provided in these institutions was not entirely religious. Martial arts, and in the case of the Princes, state-craft were as much a part of education as was the learning of great scriptures. The age of Buddha was a glorious period for mass education. Evidence exists to indicate that he was a great visionary and teacher who made a successful attempt to educate the masses by using simple people's language – *prakrit* instead of *sanskrit* – to impart life education free from prejudices regarding caste, creed and sex. In Nalanda, vocational training was an essential part of the total education programme. Education was, however, a selective affair in the sense that the great mass of people were untouched by it.

By the end of the eighteenth century, India had a well developed system of indigenous education. There was, however, no formal school system organized and supported by the State. The educational system consisted of institutions voluntarily organized to meet the limited felt needs of certain sections of people, mostly from well-to-do families. The educational scenario reflected the socio-economic background of Indian society, which was highly stratified, hierarchical and inegalitarian, consisting of a small group of well-to-do persons and a mass of people who were poor and underpriviledged. The indigenous education system consisted of institutions which could be grouped into two categories. The first consisted of the *pathashalas* and *madrassahs* which predominantly offered religious instruction. The second category included institutions providing secular education.

The beginning of the modern educational system was made with Macaulay's minute of 1835, laying down for the East India Company a policy for supporting education. Henceforth, the Government's effort was directed to the promotion of western learning, through the medium of English, in spite of the efforts of the orientalists to provide education suited to the Indian culture. The Court of Directors' Despatch of 1854 laid the foundation of modern education. Apart from recommending the establishment of departments of education and a system of grants-in-aid to private institutions, the Despatch suggested the setting up of universities in the three towns of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay.

The basic motivation to establish and subsidize English education in India was not as noble as that of Macaulay, for whom the purpose of Western education in India was to transform 'the natives into English, in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect'. The objectives were determined much more by British colonial and imperialistic purposes and by the pragmatic consideration of creating a class or classes of people who would be loyal to them and would act as interpreters between the British administrators and the natives, in order to facilitate the governance of an expanding empire.

One of the contributions made by the British administrators was to give to all citizens open access to educational institutions maintained or supported by the government. However, the educational system created was mainly for the upper class and it neglected education of the poor people who formed the large majority. The emphasis was on what has come to be known as the 'downward filtration theory' or the idea that culture would filter down from the upper to the lower classes. 'Educate the upper classes so that they can educate the masses', was the official policy adopted. The government never developed any programme of universal elementary education. The attempt was to spread elementary education among the people on a voluntary basis. But this effort was more than counterbalanced by the policy of neutrality to social reform, by the establishment of private independent schools for the well-to-do upper classes and by the inegalitarian structure of the educational system created by the British administration.

Universal elementary education. The British administration did not accept the principle of compulsory elementary education. The Indian leaders, however, continued their efforts to induce the central government to initiate steps for providing a minimum general education to all children on a free and compulsory basis. But the first effective step in this direction was taken only in 1881 when Dadabhai Naoroji, in his evidence before the first Education Commission (1882), popularly known as the Hunter Commission, put forward the demand that four years of compulsory education should be provided to all children. The demand was reiterated by the late Shri Gopal Krishna Gokhale, who moved a resolution on the subject in 1910 in the Central Legislative Assembly (1910-1912) and a bill in 1912, with the intention of inducing the central government to accept the responsibility to provide universal primary education of four years to all children. Though his efforts were unsuccessful they succeeded in arousing public consciousness of the demand for compulsory primary education. As a result, the provincial governments which came into existence under the Government of India Act (1919) passed compulsory education legislation and increased facilities for primary education. Between 1918 and 1931 compulsory education laws were passed by the newly elected state legislatures in which the Indians had a majority.

The compulsory education legislation, however, did not bring about the desired results, since the laws were permissive and could not be enforced upon poor people whose children had to remain away from schools mainly on account of poverty. Moreover, the education provided was not relevant to the needs of the masses of people. The dissatisfaction with a system based on a model which did not satisfy the requirements of the nation led to advocacy of and experimentation with a number of alternative models. In 1937, Mahatma Gandhi put forward his scheme of basic education under which education of seven years duration was proposed for all children. The Wardha Educational Conference endorsed the proposal made by Mahatma Gandhi by adopting a resolution demanding that 'free and compulsory education be provided for seven years' for all children on a nationwide scale. The scheme proposed that the mother tongue be the medium of instruction and that education be built around some form of productive craft. The scheme of basic education was conceived to be more in conformity with the needs and aspirations of the people. It was also considered to be less costly, which should facilitate its implementation throughout the country within the constraints of limited resources. The scheme of basic education, thus, represented the first indigenous effort in the country to develop a national pattern of education. Subsequently, a large number of institutions incorporating the principles of basic education were set up in the country.

As a result of these efforts, the provision of free and compulsory education to all children until the age of 14 years, was nationally accepted as the responsibility of the State. The Post-war Plan of Educational Development in India (1944), known popularly as the Sargent Plan, put forward proposals to provide free and compulsory basic education to all children in the age group 6-14 in a phased programme spread over a period of 40 years (1944-1984). The national leadership, however, felt that this was too long a period and a Committee under the Chairmanship of the late Shri B.G. Kher, the then Chief Minister of Bombay, recommended that the goal could and should be achieved by 1960. This recommendation was finally accepted and incorporated in Article 45 of the Indian Constitution as a Directive Principle of State Policy.

Constitutional and legal provision

Systematic development of universal elementary education was taken up with the attainment of independence in 1947, particularly with the enactment of the Constitution of India in 1950 and initiation of country-wide economic and social planning in 1951. Article 45 of the Constitution enacted in 1950, enjoins that 'the State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years'. The expression 'State' which occurs in Article 45 is defined in Article 12 to include 'The Government and Parliament of India and the Government and the Legislature of each State and all local or other authorities within the territory of India or under the control of the Government of India'. Commendable efforts have been made to implement the constitutional directive through successive Five Year Plans.

The Constitution lays down the basic framework for educational development in India. While education, including university education, is designated as a subject of the states' legislative concern, their exercise of powers is subject to various limitations. Article 29 guarantees to every section of the population the right to preserve its distinct language, script and culture. Article 30 enjoins that 'all minorities, whether based on religion or language, shall have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice'. It also lays down that 'the State shall not, in granting aid to educational institutions, discriminate against any educational institution on the ground that it is under the management of a minority whether based on religion or language'.

Special care of the economic and educational interests of the underprevileged sections of the population is laid down as an obligation for the State under Article 46. Under the provisions of this Article the state and central governments, apart from free education, provide scholarships and stipends to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and backward class students, reserve for them seats in educational institutions and give preference to them in job recruitment.

The legal powers of the Union and the constituent states have been listed in the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution. List I deals with powers of the Union; List II with those of the states; and List III with spheres in which both the Union and the state governments can legislate, the Union legislation having, however, a primacy over state legislation. Even though university education falls within the jurisdiction of the states, the Union Government has been delegated with important responsibilities in regard to the maintenance of central universities and institutions of scientific and technical education, financed wholly or partially by the central Government and 'co-ordination and determination of standards in institutions of higher education or research and scientific and technical institutions'. In List III, three specific entries have an important bearing for education, entry 20 dealing with economic and social planning, entry 25 with vocational and technical training of labour and entry 26, with legal, medical and other professional education. Education being a major instrument for economic and social well-being, the Central Government can assume important roles in educational planning.

Education acts. Compulsory education acts were initially introduced in the states around the major centres of modern education during the British rule, namely Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. Subsequently, similar legislation was adopted in most of the other states. With the reorganization of the states, the jurisdiction of the territory, over which such acts were legally valid, underwent modification. The age-group of children who came under the purview of compulsory education acts to some extent varied from state to state.

The City of Bombay Education Act of 1920, the Tamil Nadu Elementary Education Act (1920), the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act (1930) and the United Province Primary Education Act (1919 and 1926) were the earliest legislation aimed at bringing every child in the age group 6-11 to the primary school. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands Primary Education Regulation Act, 1959 (No. 3 of 1953) and Kerala Education Act, 1958 (Act of 6, 1959) happened to be the first sets of such legislation after independence. In 1960 and 1961, similar acts were enacted in Punjab, Haryana, Delhi, Chandigarh, Himachal Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat and Karnataka. The Rajasthan Primary Education Act and the Assam Elementary Education Act came into operation in 1964 and 1974 respectively.

Legislation for compulsory primary education exists at present in 16 States and three Union Territories. These are Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Chandigarh and Delhi. However, only the Compulsory Education Act of Himachal Pradesh covers the entire elementary stage of education for children in the age group 6-14. In the remaining states and Union Territories, the Compulsory Education Acts cover only the primary stage of education.

The enforcement of legislation is considered neither feasible nor desirable since the major reasons for non-enrolment and non-attendance are socio-economic factors and social prejudices against girls' education among certain communities. The strategy that has been followed for ensuring enrolment and retention has been pursuasion rather than compulsion or imposition of penalities. It has not been feasible to enforce compulsion in the case of disabled children, for special educational services needed for them are not yet available, except in a few urban localities.

Provision of free and compulsory education. Education in Classes I to V is free in all schools managed by Government and local bodies and a sizeable proportion of schools aided by government in all the states and Union Territories. Education in Classes VI to VIII is free in all the states and Union Territories, except in Uttar Pradesh where education of boys is yet to be made free for Classes VI to

VIII. Efforts are now being made by the Government of Uttar Pradesh to extend free education to boys at the middle stage also.

National policy on education. The problems pertaining to development of education at different levels have been reviewed from time to time by committees appointed by the central and state governments in addition to the annual reviews made by the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE). Similar reviews have been made by various high powered Commissions. The Education Commission (1964-1966) appointed by the Government of India, examined all levels and aspects of education in depth and enunciated a comprehensive educational policy fully oriented towards national development.

After reviewing the progress achieved in the first three Five Year Plans (1951-1966), the Education Commission recommended, among other things, a rearrangement of priorities in education. It underlined national development as one of the most important concerns of education. Bold recommendations were made to reconstruct the programme of education through a transformation of its content so as to relate it to the needs and aspirations of the people. Special emphasis was laid on an imaginative programme of qualitative improvement to ensure adequacy of standards achieved and a carefully planned expansion of educational facilities with the accent on equalization of educational opportunities.

The recommendations of the Education Commission were discussed widely, and following the general concensus that emerged, a Resolution on National Policy on Education was formally issued by the Government in 1968. The Resolution enunciated seventeen principles for guiding educational development in the years ahead.

On the provision of free and compulsory education at the elementary stage, the Resolution stated that 'strenuous efforts should be made for the early fulfilment of the Directive Principles under Article 45 of the Constitution seeking to provide free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14'.

The Resolution emphasized equalization of educational opportunities and stressed that 'regional imbalances in the provision of educational facilities should be corrected and good educational facilities should be provided in rural and other backward areas'. To promote social cohesion and national integration, the Resolution emphasized the need to 'have a broadly uniform educational structure in all parts of the country'. It also stated that 'the education of girls should receive emphasis' and highlighted the need to make more intensive efforts 'to develop education among the backward classes and especially among the tribal people'.

Structure of school education

For administrative purposes, India is divided into 22 states and nine Union Territories. Education, particularly school education, is the responsibility primarily of the states and Union Territories. The 42nd amendment to the Constitution, made recently, has made education a concurrent subject, thus investing the central government with the authority to legislate on education. However, no legislation has been enacted by the Government of India on education yet. The central government, as in the past, continues to use channels other than legislation for evolving national consensus on educational policies.

Being a federal state, there are some variations in the structure of school education. The primary stage consists of the first five years of schooling comprising Classes I-V in some states, and the first four years of schooling comprising Classes I-IV in others. The middle stage includes three years of schooling after the primary stage, comprising either Classes V-VII or VI-VIII, depending upon the pattern of classes prevalent in the state or territory. The middle stage may be an independent unit or combined with primary and secondary sections or both. The primary and middle stages together constitute the elementary stage. Thus, normally, the elementary school stage has Classes I-VII or I-VIII.

In most cases, Classes IX-X constitute the secondary stage. Schools having this pattern are normally referred to as 'high schools'. In some states, the secondary stage terminates only at the end of class XI. The schools having Classes IX-XI are referred to as higher secondary schools. In some states/UTs where the secondary stage terminates at the end of Class X, there exists a stage of school education called the higher/senior secondary stage comprising Classes XI-XII. However, in the case of a few states the higher/senior secondary stage forms part of college education, often referred to as the intermediate or pre-degree stage.

The Education Commission (1964-1966) proposed an uniform pattern for school systems throughout the country. Following the recommendations made by the Education Commission and the National Policy on Education (1968), many states and Union Territories have adopted the 10+2 pattern of school education, comprising primary, middle, secondary and higher secondary stages. In these states/UTs, Classes I-V constitute the primary stage, Classes VI-VIII the middle stage, Classes IX-X the secondary stage and Classes XI-XII the higher secondary stage.

So far 18 states and nine Union Territories have adopted the 10+2 pattern of school education. In Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab and Rajasthan, the secondary stage continues to consist of Classes IX-XI. These states have, however, agreed to adopt the 10+2 pattern from the next academic session onwards.

A child is normally admitted to Class I at the age of six and he is expected to complete Class V at the age of about eleven years and Class VIII at the age of about 14 years. Classes I-VIII constitute the elementary stage of school education for the age group 6-14 and it is for this age group that attempts to universalize education are being made.

Under the new pattern of school education, every student is expected to follow a uniform programme of studies up to Class X. It is only in Classes XI and XII that diversification is resorted to and students are expected to opt for what are broadly categorized as the academic stream or vocational courses, which are largely terminal.

Organizational set-up for administration of school education

The administration of school education is organized at two major levels – central and state. Both the central and state/Union Territory governments have their own machinery for administration of school education. Within each state/Union Territory there are, apart from the government machinery, local government agencies and private groups involved in school education with their own set-up for management of school education. A large majority of them receive financial support from the Government. Except for a small number, primary schools are managed by local bodies like municipalities, municipal corporations and panchayat raj institutions. Middle schools are largely under the control of Government.

Central level. At the central level, the Department of Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture is responsible for all matters connected with education, including overall planning and guidance. The Department is under the charge of a Secretary who is assisted and advised by the Special Secretary/Educational Adviser, on academic and policy matters of education.

The Department of Education consists of several bureaux, each headed by a Joint Secretary, a Joint Educational Adviser or a Director. These officials are assisted by Deputy Secretaries or Deputy Educational Advisers who are called divisional heads. They are assisted by Under Secretaries or Assistant Educational Advisers who have one or more sections under them.

Though school education is the responsibility primarily of the state/UT governments, the Department of Education in the central government is responsible for providing guidance to state governments and Union Territory administrations in the formulation and implementation of educational plans and programmes. It is also directly responsible for implementation of the programmes which have been included in its plan. It advises the state governments on all educational matters and assists them in providing free and compulsory elementary education to all children until they reach the age of 14. The Department is also responsible for co-ordination of activities in the field of school education and for monitoring the progress of education all over the country, in addition to bringing out statistical and other publications related to educational programmes and progress achieved. The Department of Education in the Union Government has a special responsibility for education in the Union Territories.

Specialized institutions

In order to assist and advise the Ministry of Education in the implementation of its policies and programmes, particularly school education, the Union Government has set up a number of specialized institutions and organizations at the national level for the development and improvement of school education. Prominent among these are the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) and Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan (KVS).

The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) was set up in 1961 as an autonomous organization financed entirely by the Ministry of Education. The Council assists the Ministry of Education and the state governments in implementing policies and formulating major programmes in the field of school education, particularly in the context of universalization of elementary education. It not only plays a leadership role but also maintains a close liaison with all the state governments and Union Territory administrations through its network of Field Advisers Offices and four Regional Colleges of Education.

NCERT has made a significant contribution to the effort for qualitative improvement of school education in general and of elementary education in particular. The major functions of the Council are research, development, training and extension. To ensure a multiplier effect, the Council has adopted the strategy of training key personnel of state/UT institutions, who in turn are utilized for training a large number of teachers, supervisors and other functionaries. Development activities and their extension constitute an important aspect of the Council's work. The development of curricula and preparation of textbooks for school education have been among its main activities. The Council has prepared teachers' guides, student's workbooks, supplementary reading materials, and undertaken publication of research monographs and periodicals. It has also developed teaching aids, science kits, laboratory equipment, educational films, instructional television programmes and radio scripts for elementary school children. Serious attention is paid to experimentation and improving instructional processes/practices and innovations related to curriculum development, learning processes, guidance and measurement and evaluation. In short, the focus of the work of NCERT is the development and improvement of school education and teacher education in the country.

The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) was set up in 1972, mainly to improve educational planning and administrative services in the country. It organizes training courses, seminars, workshops and conferences of senior education officers at the Centre and in the states/UTs, especially with reference to the planning and management aspects of the programme of universalization of elementary education. It has also been undertaking studies of problems faced in educational planning and administration at different levels.

Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan was set up in 1965 in order to provide educational facilities to children of transferable central government employees. The schools set up by Sangathan are situated all over the country and they provide education from the primary stage to the senior secondary stage, i.e. Classes I-XII. The Sangathan has contributed significantly to the improvement of school education.

All India forums

In addition to the above organizations and institutions, the Government has developed a number of All-India forums mainly to facilitate the process of educational development in the country. They also help in strengthening the relationship between the central and state governments, in planning and administration of educational programmes as well as in co-ordination of various activities aimed at developing education in the country. Co-ordination of school education is secured through the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE), State Education Ministers' Conferences and the Planning Commission.

CABE is the highest advisory body in the field of education and it lays down general educational policy. It formulates aims and objects, assesses prevailing position and draws up future plans. Most educational schemes are formulated and implemented by state governments and Union Territory administrations on the basis of policies laid down by CABE.

The conferences of Education Ministers of states and Union Territories held generally once a year, provide forums for them to consider issues relating to the overall national policy on education. In these conferences progress achieved in the provision of universal elementary education is critically reviewed and strategies for future action are discussed and formulated.

These forums help to develop a broad consensus on educational issues within the federal system, where states have considerable autonomy in educational matters.

The Planning Commission of the Government of India is responsible for preparing development plans, including plans for education, for the whole country. Plans are prepared in consultation with the representatives of the state/UT governments. In the discussion held in the Planning Commission every year to finalize the Annual Plans of states/UTs for education, detailed information on various aspects of elementary education is collected. During these discussions, the Commission brings together officials of the Department of Education in the Union Ministry of Education and the Education Departments of states/UTs so as to enable them to critically review the progress achieved and chalk out future strategies for the development of school education in the country. By determining the allocation of resources the Planning Commission exercises substantial influence on the direction of educational development.

State level. For administration, every state/Union Territory is divided into districts. In some states, where the districts are fairly large, there is an intermediate unit between the state government and the district administration. A district is further subdivided into blocks and the whole country has about 5,000 such blocks.

The Department of Education, headed by a Secretary to the state government, is responsible for formulation and implementation of all educational programmes in the state. He is assisted by additional and/or Joint Secretaries, Deputy Secretaries, Under Secretaries and Section Officers and other supporting staff.

Each state/UT has a Directorate of Education or a Directorate of Public Instruction headed by a Director called the Director of Education/Public Instruction. In some of the states/UTs there is more than one Directorate, each looking after a particular stage of school education such as elementary education, secondary education and so on.

To facilitate educational planning and administration, states have been divided into several regions, each region under the charge of a regional Deputy Director/Superintendent/Joint Director/Circle Education Officers/Chief Education Officers according to the pattern adopted by the state.

For convenience of educational administration, in some states, educational districts non co-terminus with revenue districts, have been created. Each education district is under the charge of an officer generally called a District Education Officer (DEO) or a District Inspector of Schools (DIS). Each DEO is assisted by a number of lower level officers at the block level. The educational activities of a block, which is the lowest unit of educational administration in India, is under the charge of an officer who is designated differently in different states/UTs. In some, he is designated as a Block Education Officer, in some a Sub-deputy Inspector of Schools, and in others an Extension Officer (Education). These officials are mostly concerned with elementary education in their blocks.

Educational administration in the states of India is thus carried out at several levels. The organizational structure and the administrative set-up of school education in India varies from state/UT to state/UT. According to the number of structural layers of administration, the states and Union Territories can be grouped into four categories. In the case of Union Territories, which are usually small geographical units, the levels of educational administration are only one or two. Three Union Territories have a unitary type of administration under a single Directorate of Education, responsible for administering the entire department of education. Four states and three Union Territories have a two tier system at the state and district levels. Seven states and three Union Territories have a three tier system with a directorate at the state level supported by Divisional and District offices. Eleven states have a four tier system of educational functionaires at the state, regional, district and block levels.

District level. At the district level, the responsibility for administrative and financial matters belongs to the District Education Officer/District Inspector of Schools who is assisted by block level officers and an administrative and clerical establishment. The DEOs are designated differently in different States. The DEO normally works directly under the Director of Education/Public Instruction, except in some states where there is an intermediate regional/divisional machinery for educational administration.

Administration and supervision at the district level vary from state to state. For instance in Andhra Pradesh, each DEO has three or four gazetted Inspectors of Schools who help him in academic inspection and administration. The educational district is further divided into sub-districts, each sub-district being in the charge of a Deputy Inspector of Schools, who is mainly responsible for supervision and inspection of primary and middle schools. In Bihar, the DEO is assisted by a Superintendent of Education who administers primary and middle schools. He also supervises the work of the Deputy Inspectors of Schools and block education extension officers who inspect primary and middle schools respectively. In Karnataka, the Deputy Director of Public Instruction is concerned with the inspection of high schools.

The DEO in Maharashtra functions as an adviser to and administrator of elementary and secondary schools under the charge of the Zila Parishad (District Council). He is assisted by a deputy education officer, a superintendent, and a social education organizer. The assistant deputy education inspector of schools assists the DEO in the inspection of primary schools and organization of primary education activities at the block level.

In Uttar Pradesh, the District Inspector of Schools is in charge of education at the district level. He is assisted by a Zila Basic Shiksha Adhikari (District Basic Education Officer) who is in charge of education up to Class VIII. In addition there are a number of deputy and assistant inspectors of schools who assist the DIS in discharging his responsibilities.

A detailed study of the administrative structure of elementary education in nine states – Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Orissa, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal – was sponsored by NIEPA in 1979. The study indicated that, though the designation of the DEO or corresponding officials at the district level varies from state to state, the functions and powers assigned to DEOs are more or less similar in all parts of the country. He/she functions as chief co-ordinator of all educational activities at the school stage in the district and is the most important functionary in the preparation of the district educational plan. His functions include inspection of all subordinate offices under his control at least once each year and inspection of not less than 15 per cent of schools in the district every year. The DEO is also responsible for co-ordinating the functioning of primary and middle schools which are under the administrative control of the Zila Parishad, Panchayat Samitis (block/village level representative body), municipalities and private agencies.

The office of the District Education Officer is responsible for co-ordinating provision of incentives, appointments and transfers of primary and middle school teachers. The duties of the DEO include the regular release of grants and other payments to local bodies and aided institutions and submission of utilization certificates. The

DEO is also expected to be present at all meetings of the District Selection Committee for selection of elementary school teachers.

The above job description of the District Education Officer includes major activities only and it has been observed that due to numerous administrative commitments he very often fails to provide academic leadership to the school system in the district. While traditionally educational administration was designed with greater emphasis on inspection and supervision, with the rapid expansion of educational facilities in the post-independence period, educational administration has been increasingly involved with desk work and consultative meetings. As a result, field visits and community contacts have suffered considerably. Most of the DEOs interviewed by the NIEPA team confessed that they could hardly afford to spend more than 20 to 30 days a year visiting schools to provide technical support and guidance. The maintenance of data and records at the district level, including systematic mapping of schools for the purpose of efficient planning and monitoring, was found to be rather poor.

At the sub-district level, which happens to be either a Community Development Block, sub-division or Tehsil, an officer representing the Education Department is responsible for co-ordinating all matters relating to elementary education, under the overall guidance and control of the DEO. However, the Extension Officer (Education), Sub-Deputy Inspector of Schools or Tehsil Education Officer, who represents the Education Department at the sub-district, is of a junior grade and does not operate as head of an independent office at the block or sub-division level. In most cases, the Extension Officer (Education) in a block is under the control of the Block Development Officer. The dual control of the Extension Officer (Education) by the DEO and BDO often poses a serious hindrance to the smooth functioning of educational administration at the sub-district level.

The role of the Deputy Inspector of Schools or Extension Officer (Education) is crucial from the point of view of facilitating inter-agency co-operation and community participation at the school level. However, as he, like the DEO, is mostly involved in administrative matters including preparation of salary bills of teachers, and collection and consolidation of statistical data, he finds it extremely difficult to visit primary and middle schools under him even for a minimum period of 20 days a month, as prescribed. As in the case of district level administration, the maintenance of statistics at the sub-district level is by and large unsatisfactory.

Non-government administrative machinery

According to the type of management, schools are generally categorized in four groups – government schools; schools run by local government bodies such as the Zila Parishad, municipalities, corporations, and Panchayati raj institutions; private aided and private unaided schools. India has an old tradition of private or non-governmental support to education. There are both recognized and unrecognized educational institutions. A recognized institution may be aided or unaided by government. All aided schools are recognized and they receive regular financial assistance from the Government. Recognition to schools is given by the state/Government; it is granted to a school subject to its fulfilling certain conditions regarding required facilities. A private or non-government educational institution is generally established by a charitable or social welfare organization or individuals; who provide land, construct buildings, provide furniture and provide finance for payment of teachers and other personnel until the institution is granted recognition and grant-in-aid by the government. In the case of aided schools the management contributes matching funds towards maintenance and running of the school.

Organizational set-up for implementation of non-formal education programme

Considering the inadequacy of the formal system of education to cater to the educational needs of a large proportion of children, particularly those belonging to the disadvantaged sections, substantial headway is being made in the provision of non-formal education as an alternate strategy for universalization of elementary education. By 1983, nearly 100,000 non-formal education centres enrolling nearly three million children in the age group 9-14, had been established.

The non-formal education programme is being implemented through the normal administrative machinery already available at the centre and in the states, but with suitable strengthening, wherever required. At the centre, the School Education Bureau, headed by a

Joint Secretary in the Department of Education, Ministry of Education and Culture, is responsible for all matters concerned with the implementation of the non-formal education programme. The role of the Ministry of Education includes overall administration of the scheme, monitoring the implementation of the programme and utilization of funds and co-ordination of the activities of the various agencies involved. It is assisted by NCERT, which provides the academic guidance and support necessary at the state level.

At the state level, the Directorate of Education/Public Instruction is in charge of implementing the programme. In some states there is a separate Directorate of Non-formal Education, headed by a Director. The Directorate of Education/Public Instruction performs the functions of disbursement of funds, actual implementation of the programme, monitoring of the implementation and providing feedback on the implementation process to the Union Ministry of Education. In performing these functions, the Director is assisted by a Joint Director of non-formal education and supervisory officers at the district and block levels.

The academic support to the programme at the state level is provided by the State Institute of Education (SIE) or the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT). It is responsible for preparation of curricula and instructional materials, and for training of personnel at all levels. The SIE/SCERT is assisted by the elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs) in conducting the training of instructors, supervisors and co-ordinators at the block level.

The mechanism for the supervision of non-formal education centres varies from state to state. The supervision of these centres in Uttar Pradesh is carried out by a block-level supervisor who has about 75 centres under his charge. At the district level, the administration of the centres is looked after by an Additional Deputy Inspector under the overall supervision of the District Basic Education Officer, who is in charge of all programmes of elementary education in the district. The monitoring of the programme is done in every region by an officer on special duty under the guidance of a Regional Deputy Director of Education. An Additional Director/ Joint Director looks after planning, implementation, financing and monitoring of the entire programme under the overall supervision of the Additional Director of Education (Elementary).

In Madhya Pradesh, there are two categories of non-formal education centres, namely district centres and centres under the jurisdiction of Basic Training Institutions (BTIs). District centres are under the control of the DEO and BTI centres under the respective principals of BTIs. Each district centre is inspected by the Assistant District Inspector of Schools (ADI) once a month. Similarly each BTI centre is inspected, once a month, by the principal of the BTI to which the centre is attached.

In Andhra Pradesh, the supervision of the centres in a block consisting of 60 centres is done by a supervisor. Monthly progress reports and reports of the visit to the centres is sent by the supervisor to the DEO who looks after the programme at the district level. The DEO works in close liaison with the Joint Director for non-formal education who, at the Directorate level, assists the Additional Director of School Education and the Commissioner for School Education in planning, implementation and monitoring of the programme at the state level.

A system of monitoring has been built up in all states/UTs implementing the non-formal education programme. The feedback on the programme flows from centres to the block level, district level and state authorities and finally to the central government. State plans have provided funds for the strengthening of the State Directorate of Education for implementing the non-formal education programme, setting up or strengthening SCERTs, improving and strengthening elementary teacher training institutions and for strengthening the supervisory machinery at the block and district levels. Formal and non-formal programmes go through the same administrative structure, since the programmes are complementary and in the long run are expected to support, strengthen and enrich each other.

Planning of elementary education

The district educational administration is gradually acquiring a key role in decentralized educational planning in most of the states. The District Education Officer, being a senior officer of the Department of Education, who has access to state level policy decisions on the one hand and the field level data on the other, is in a unique position to improve the planning process. According to the present practice, the DEO concretizes the district school development plan on the basis of a brief from the state Directorate, without any need-assessment or feasibility study. The district level targets are generally decided at the national and state levels according to certain norms, without any serious assessment of the progress of the on-going programmes. In some states, however, a beginning has been made in allowing the district level organization to develop part of the district education plan. Still, the bottom-up component of the planning process is rather weak in the procedure now followed in educational planning.

A draft plan finalized at the state level passes through a series of consultative meetings before it reaches the national level, where the draft is discussed both in the Ministry of Education and Culture and also in the Planning Commission. As the states must compete for higher allocations, the Planning Commission has to make its own assessment of the needs of different states on the basis of the secondary data available and also through national sample surveys. While allocating resources to a state, the Planning Commission also takes into account the efforts made by the state in the achievement of targets set out in earlier plans and also for the coverage of priority groups viz. girls, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes under the programmes of universal primary education. In most cases, allocations in the priority areas must be used for the purpose for which they are allocated. However, diversion of funds from priority areas to non-priority areas does take place when the progress of implementation gets slowed down due to lack of concerted efforts on the part of the educational administration at the different levels. Very often, the diversion of funds from elementary to secondary education takes place as a result of the growing social demand for higher education.

Machinery for curriculum development

At the national level, the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) is responsible for developing and revising the curriculum for school education. NCERT produces curricula, syllabi, textbooks and other instructional materials in all subjects for primary, middle, secondary and higher secondary stages of school education. However, the role of NCERT is advisory in nature and it does not prescribe any syllabus or textbook for any state/Union Territory.

At the state/UT level, the curriculum is developed and revised through the Department of Education/Directorates of Education/ Public Instruction. The executive machinery for curriculum development in states/UTs has been strengthened by establishing agencies such as State Councils of Educational Research and Training (SCERTs)/State Institutes of Education (SIEs) State Institutes of Science Education (SISEs), and Textbook Bureaux under the administrative control of the Department of Education. These agencies help in the development and implementation of curriculum in states/ UTs. They also conduct research, suggest improvements in curriculum, develop and evaluate materials, textbooks, handbooks, teachers' guides and supplementary readers.

Some states/UTs have now accepted (with suitable adaptations) the curricula, textbooks and other instructional materials prepared by NCERT. NCERT has been providing experts to states/UTs in the development or revision of curricula and textbooks and other instructional materials. It has also been extending technical assistance for training key personnel from states/UTs in the methodology of development, implementation and revision of curriculum. As a result, a broad uniformity has emerged in syllabi and the content of courses and textbooks.

The system of curriculum development in a state/UT is by and large centralized. The syllabus or textbooks in different subjects are prescribed for a certain period. Before the completion of the prescribed period, plans for the development or revision of the syllabus and textbooks are initiated. The syllabi are generally developed by syllabus committees constituted by the Department/Directorate of Education/Public Instruction. In most cases, these committees are constituted by subject. They are normally appointed on a temporary basis for two to three years, through an executive order of the state/ UT government. The Director/Additional Director/Joint Director acts as the *ex-officio* chairman of the subject committees. The syllabus committee generally consists of subject specialists, experienced teachers, specialists from NCERT, SIEs/SCERTs and teacher training institutes, representatives of the Department of Education and other knowledgeable persons. The major functions of these committees include examination and critical review of existing syllabi, recommendations for changes in content, methods of teaching or evaluations in the light of recommendations of Commissions and Working Groups appointed at national and state levels or on the basis of the overall policy formulated by the central Government.

Preparation of textbooks. The preparation and production of textbooks has been nationalized in most states, as far as the elementary stage of education is concerned. Each state/UT has its own machinery for the preparation and publication of textbooks and other instructional materials. However, the procedures followed vary from state to state. School textbooks are either produced by the Department of Education in the state/UT or prescribed by it. In others, a different procedure is adopted for production and publication of textbooks. In these cases, textbooks are prepared by private authors or individuals. These are submitted to the Textbook Committees set up by the Department of Education. These scrutinize and critically review the books and recommend them to the Director of Education/Public Instruction for approval. While in some states the Director is authorized to approve and prescribe a textbook for use in schools, in others the Director only recommends books for approval by the state government. Selection of books is guided by their suitability for the particular age group, adequacy of content, the difficulty level and the appropriateness of the presentation.

The period of use of textbooks once adopted varies from state to state. Normally textbooks, once prescribed, remain in use for a period of three to five years. However, the Departments of Education can bring about changes in books as and when the need for revision or change is felt by the state government. In recent years, many states/UTs have brought about changes in textbooks and other instructional materials in order to make them conform to the Framework for the Ten Year School Curriculum provided by NCERT. The growing realization of the need for the improvement of curriculum at different stages of school education has been another reason for the revision of textbooks.

Most of the states/UTs have nationalized textbook production at the elementary stage. In the case of nationalized textbooks, the responsibility for their publication is generally undertaken by the Education Department. Printing of books is mostly done at the Government Presses, but due to the large numbers, some books are printed by private presses at competitive rates to avoid delays in availability of textbooks. Books prepared by individual authors for use as textbooks, are published by the respective authors/publishers. The Education Departments, however, control the quality of production.

Elementary education being free and compulsory under the Constitution of India, the state governments and the administrations of UTs are expected to supply free textbooks to all children in the age group 6-14 studying in Classes I-VIII. It has not yet been possible to supply free textbooks to all children. Those belonging to the low-income groups are given preference.

Curriculum load. There has been, in recent years, a growing feeling that the curriculum load has been considerably increased at the elementary level. Several steps have been taken by NCERT and several school boards to revise syllabi and textbooks, which were introduced in the first phase of the new pattern. A working group on curriculum load has been formed in NCERT. It has initiated investigative studies, for the assessment of the curriculum load in the grades from I to X. One of the major objectives of these studies is to suggest measures for improvement through institutionalization of appropriate teaching methods, organization of classroom activities and in-service training of teachers.

As the curriculum load is re-examined, methods of evaluation must also be modified. A continuous improvement in the presentation and language of instructional materials may also prove to be an effective means of instilling a sense of confidence in the pupils and teachers regarding the prescribed syllabi and textbooks.

It is necessary to mention the point of view held by some experts, that improper and inadequate use of instructional time has created the impression that the curriculum load is too heavy. But comparison of our curriculum with that of other countries suggests that the assumption is not fully tenable.

Institutional provision for training of elementary school teachers

There are about 1,000 elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs) in the country. The annual output of trained teachers from these institutes is adequate to meet the demand for elementary school teachers in most of the states/UTs. In fact, the output during the past few years has been more than the number that could be absorbed by the school system under the existing rate of growth. As a result there has been a considerable number of unemployed teacher training certificate holders in some of the states/UTs. In view of this development some states have temporarily closed down the TTIs while a few others have reduced the annual intake.

The pre-service training of teachers at the elementary stage is generally of two years' duration, except in a few states/UTs where the duration is one year. The minimum qualification required for entry in a TTI is matriculation.

Currently, elementary teacher education curriculum is undergoing revision in many states/UTs as per the recommendations of the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) in its document titled, 'Teacher education curriculum – a framework', published in 1978. The framework is based on the assumption that trainees, with varying abilities and achievements, would come to the teacher education institutions for participation in all or part of the courses, depending upon their needs and circumstances. It is assumed that a large majority of teacher trainees would join the courses after completion of ten years of education under the 10+2 pattern of education. Since these teacher trainees would not have studied education either as a discipline or as a vocation before entering the training institutions, they would need a two-year course to complete the certification requirements. There could, however, be some teacher trainees who have completed the +2 stage of education before entering training institutions. Some or all of these students would have studied education either as a discipline or as a vocation at the +2 stage. In such situations, a course of one year duration is considered adequate. Similarly, for graduates who wish to undergo elementary teacher training in order to become primary school teachers, a one-year course is considered to be adequate.

The NCTE recommended that the two year courses might be converted into a four semester course with 72 credit hour courses. The structure of the curriculum for the elementary teacher training courses as visualized by the NCTE, consists of three major areas of work. These are (a) Pedagogical theory; (b) Working with the community; and (c) Content-cum-methodology and practice teaching, including related practical work. Part (a) of the course dealing with pedagogical theory covers three main areas: (i) Teacher and education in the emerging Indian society; (ii) Child psychology; and (iii) Special courses according to the need and facilities available. Part (b) of the course dealing with 'Working with the community' covers a study of and participation in the work situations in the community around the teacher-training institutions. The need for this participation arises out of the emphasis on converting teacher education courses into task-oriented training programmes. The idea is to link learning with local conditions and to help the teacher trainees to see the relevance of their studies in the context of local problems and issues. 'Working with the community', thus, includes a study of the local environment through survey visits, discussions, observations and participation in various activities in the community, with a view to developing an understanding of the behaviour patterns of children, the expectations of parents and the utilization of resources available in the community for qualitative improvement and quantitative expansion of educational facilities. One of the major components of work in this area is the organization of programmes of non-formal education for out-of-school children by all teacher trainees.

Part (c) of the course dealing with content-cum-methodology and practice-teaching covers training programmes dealing with the teaching of language, mathematics, environmental studies, socially useful productive work and health and physical education. The 'Core training programme Package' which is designed to help teacher trainees to acquire the basic skills of teaching, forms an important component of work under content-cum-methodology.

With regard to the emphasis given to the three areas of work under the new pattern of elementary teacher education, it has been proposed to allocate 20 per cent of the credit hours to pedagogical theory, 20 per cent to working with the community and 60 per cent to content-cum-methodology. Thus, in a 72 credit hour course pedagogical theory would have a 14 credit hour course, working with the community would have another 14 credit hours course and content-cum-methodology would have a roughly 44 credit hour course.

The TTIs have not been satisfactory in terms of their infrastructural facilities and the standards of training imparted. The provision for in-service education of elementary school teachers has also not been adequate. NCERT has been training key personnel and resource persons at the state/UT level to train in-service teachers through the SCERTs/SIEs.

At the state/UT level, SCERTs/SIEs organize short-term training courses and summer institutes for elementary school teachers. In view of the large number of elementary school teachers, however, the efforts made by these institutions for training of in-service teachers have been woefully inadequate.

Community participation in promoting elementary education

A large number of primary schools in India are single teacher schools without any school building or basic physical facilities. Any attempt to increase school enrolment by setting up more such schools, without bringing about a significant improvement in the mobilization of resources for primary education, is bound to have a limited effect. There is, however, a growing awareness in different states of the need to mobilize local resources for the improvement of school facilities, particularly in the rural areas. Wherever a community level committee has taken the initiative of mobilizing local resources, they have not only been successful in augmenting the facilities of local schools, but have also discovered their own potential in managing schools. For these reasons a new role for community level committees seems to be becoming more visible and acceptable to all concerned with school education.

The Government of India has recently formed two National Commissions on Teachers – one for the school system and the other for the higher education system. These Commissions have undertaken a number of in-depth studies to explore the possibility of mobilizing teachers to implement various priority programmes, including universalization of elementary education.

Chapter Two

PROGRESS ACHIEVED AND PRESENT STATUS

Universalization of elementary education has been one of the most important goals of educational development in India since Independence. At the time of attainment of independence in 1947, the level of achievement in elementary education was fairly low in almost all respects. Thousands of villages and rural habitations were without schools. Only one child out of three in the age group 6-11 and only one child out of eleven in the age group 11-14 were enrolled in schools. Educational inequalities were very large, especially between one region and another, between urban and rural areas, between boys and girls and between the advanced and intermediate castes on the one hand and the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other backward classes on the other. The quality of elementary education was unsatisfactory and the rates of drop-out and stagnation were very high.

Universalization of elementary education

The Directive Principles of the Constitution make it obligatory for the State to provide free, compulsory and universal education for children up to the age of 14. As no specific age group has been clearly indicated it can be interpreted that free and compulsory education should cover both young learners of the age group below 5 and children of the age group 6-14, comprising generally two or three years of pre-school education, and 4 to 5 years of primary and 3 to 4 years of middle school education.

After achieving independence, India undertook the gigantic task of national reconstruction aimed at bringing about socio-economic transformation and at creating a new social order based on the principles of democracy, social justice and secularism. Without providing education to the masses, it is wellnigh impossible to establish a just and egalitarian society: this has come to be accepted as an indisputable fact. Sufficient research evidence exists to support a hypothesis of relationship between the educational status of a young population and the economic development of the country. Recent studies of Indias growth rate in 1960s indicate that nearly one-third is accounted for by investments in education, particularly basic education in the 1950s. Rates of return analyses of Indian investments in physical and human capital consistently show higher returns of investments in primary education than physical capital. The Education Commission (1964-1966) was aware of this fact; hence the slogan 'education for national development' was articulated.

In recent years there has been a growing recognition of the potential benefits of education as a means to upward economic and social mobility. Education is regarded as one of the most powerful instruments of national development, for it develops in an individual the ability to participate constructively in the national development effort. It is also an effective means for improving the quality of life of the people.

In the Indian context, elementary education acquires special significance. For many years to come, a large proportion of the young population will discontinue education after eight years of elementary school to join the world of work. Implementation of developmental programmes will depend on the effective participation of these individuals. It is only through elementary education that they can be equipped with the knowledge, skills interests, attitudes and values required for social and economic reconstruction.

In view of the above considerations, universal elementary education has been accorded highest priority. During the post-independence period, especially after the adoption of the Constitution of India in 1950, the Government initiated well-planned, intensive and sustained efforts for achieving the goal of universal elementary education. Considerable resources were invested in expanding the facilities for elementary education, as well as for qualitative improvement. The financial outlay for elementary education rose from Rs 930 million in the First Five Year Plan (1951-1956) to Rs 9,050 million in the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985). The outlay earmarked for elementary education in the Sixth Five Year Plan constitutes 35.9 per cent of the total outlay of Rs 25,240 million allocated for education.

According to the Constitution of India, the goal of universalization of elementary education should have been attained by the year

1960. However, this target date had to be first revised to 1970, then to 1976 and later to 1988. The present target date according to the Sixth Five Year Plan, is 1990. An ever-increasing population and financial and manpower constraints have been the main impeding factors in achieving the targets envisaged.

Universalization of elementary education in India encompasses four major components. These are : universal provision of educational facilities, universal enrolment, universal retention and qualitative improvement of schooling. Universal provision of educational facilities envisages that access to education up to the elementary stage (Classes I-VIII) is provided within easy walking distance from the home of every child in the age group 6-14. Keeping in view Indian conditions, one kilometre is accepted as the walking distance for location of primary schools and three kilometres for location of middle schools. Universal enrolment implies enrolment of all children in the age group 6-14. Universal retention envisages conscious attempts to retain all children in school who are enrolled in Class I until they successfully complete Class VIII. It also implies that each child is helped to make regular progress from one class to the other so that he/she completes elementary education in eight years. Qualitative improvement envisages continuous renewal of the curriculum to make it relevant to the changing needs and aspiration of the community to which the children belong. It also envisages steps for enhancing the holding power of schools, better utilization of existing resources, and proper planning and management of infrastructure, manpower and material resources. Improving the quality of education also requires the adoption of innovative instructional procedures and techniques of evaluation, development of appropriate programmes for pre-service and in-service education of teachers and supervisory personnel and innovative experiments and research.

Progress achieved in respect of major components

Since the initiation of economic and social planning in 1951, India has been confronted simultaneously with the above-mentioned four major tasks of universalizing elementary education. The progress achieved towards these goals is by no means insignificant or inconsequential, although a great deal remains to be done.

Provision of educational facilities. Substantial progress has been achieved in the provision of schooling facilities since 1950. Table 1 indicates the growth of recognized primary and middle schools in India from 1950-1951 to 1981-1982. The number of primary schools increased from 209,671 in 1950-1951 to 495,007 in 1981-1982, thus recording an increase of about 136 per cent. During the same period the number of middle schools increased from 13,596 to 119,560, recording more than an eight fold increase.

Table 1. Growth of primary and middle schools in India (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Primary school*	*Middle school*	*Total*
1950-1951	209,671	13,596	223,267
1955-1956	278,135	21,730	299,865
1960-1961	330,399	49,663	380,062
1965-1966	361,064	75,798	436,862
1970-1971	408,378	90,621	498,999
1975-1976	454,270	106,571	560,841
1980-1981 (P)	485,538	116,447	601,985
1981-1982 (P)	495,007	119,560	614,567

(P) Provisional

Source: i) A Handbook of educational and allied statistics, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951 to 1980-1981)

ii) Selected educational statistics 1981-1982 Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1981-1982).

For primary schools in the country, the overall percentage increase during the period 1970-1971 to 1981-1982 was 21.1 (Annex Table I). The percentage increase was more than 70 in the case of one state and one Union Territory, between 60 and 70 in the case of two states, between 50 and 60 in one state and between 30 and 40 in two others. In the case of four states and two Union Territories, the percentage increase was between 20 to 30. There has been a fall in the number of primary schools in Kerala, Chandigarh, Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Lakshadweep. This was mainly due to the fact that some of the existing primary schools were upgraded to middle schools consisting of both primary and middle sections.

The percentage increase in middle schools over the period 1970-1971 to 1981-1982 was 31.9. In the case of one state and one Union Territory, the percentage increase was over 150. The percentage increase was between 70 to 80 per cent in three states and between 40 and 50 in another. In the case of four states and one Union Territory the percentage increase in primary schools was between 30 and 40 per cent. A fall in the number of middle schools has been recorded in Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Delhi, Goa, Daman & Diu and Lakshadweep. This has been due to the upgrading of some of the existing middle schools into secondary schools and higher secondary schools which provide facilities for education at the middle stage also.

Provision of educational facilities in rural areas. The absolute number of primary and middle schools often does not provide a true indicator of the progress achieved in respect of provision of educational facilities. It is, therefore, more appropriate to measure this progress in terms of schooling facilities in rural and urban areas as well as in terms of the average distance that a child has to walk to reach the nearest primary and middle schools.

In order to assess the progress achieved regarding the provision of educational facilities at various stages of school education in rural and urban areas and to gather data for a more rational location of schools, four All India educational surveys have been conducted during the years 1957, 1965, 1973 and 1978. Information collected in each survey was on a census basis and attempts were made to enumerate all the rural habitations with and without schooling facilities, particularly at the elementary stage, and to identify clusters and habitations where new schools would have to be established or existing schools upgraded.

In respect of elementary education, the basic unit adopted for enumeration was the habitation and not the village, which is a unit for administration and revenue collection. A habitation is a distinct cluster of contiguous houses with a local name. A village may comprise one or more habitations, one of which may give its name to the village itself.

The 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) indicated that the number of primary schools in the country was 474,636. Of these 431,602 (90.93 per cent) schools were located in rural areas. The number of middle schools in 1978 was 112,404, out of which 94,180 (83.78 per cent) were located in rural areas.

The number of primary schools in the country at the time of the 'Third all India educational survey' (31 December 1973) was

455,729 out of which 414,151 (90.88 per cent) were located in rural areas. The number of middle schools in the country in 1973 was 90,681. Of these 75,728 (83.51 per cent) were located in rural areas. For the primary schools in the country there was an overall percentage increase of 6.93 during the period 1973-1978. The corresponding percentages for the rural and urban areas were 6.70 and 9.25 respectively. The overall percentage increase in the number of middle schools during the period 1973-1978 was 10.13. The corresponding percentages for the rural and urban areas were 10.41 and 9.36 respectively.

In addition to the 474,636 independent primary schools in the country in 1978, primary sections were also attached to 95,374 middle schools, secondary schools, higher secondary schools and intermediate colleges. Similarly, in addition to the 112,404 independent middle schools in the country, middle sections were attached to 34,846 secondary schools, higher secondary schools and intermediate colleges. Thus, in 1978, there were 570,010 primary sections and 147,250 middle sections in the country. Over 91 per cent of primary sections and 78.86 per cent of middle sections were located in rural areas.

Habitations served by primary and middle sections. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) indicated that there were 964,664 rural habitations in the country with populations ranging from below 100 to 5,000 and above. Primary schools/sections were available in 46.80 per cent of the habitations (Table 2). In the case of 33.44 per cent of the habitations, primary schools/sections were available in the neighbouring habitations within a distance of 1 km. Thus, 80.24 per cent of habitations had primary schools/sections either within the habitations or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 1 km.

In 1978, 27.09 per cent of the habitations had middle schools/sections either within the habitations or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 1 km (Table 3). The percentage of habitations which had middle school facilities either within them or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 3 km was 66.86. In the case of 14.48 per cent of the rural habitations, middle schools/sections were available only at a distance of more than 5 km.

Table 2. Habitations in various population slabs served by primary schools/sections (1978)

Distance at which primary schools/ sections are available	*Below 100*	*100-199*	*200-299*	*300-399*	*400-499*	*500-999*	*1000-1999*	*2000-4999*	*5000 & above*	*Total*
Within the habitation	10,581	33,124	46,961	49,977	45,469	141,437	85,730	33,844	4,334	451,457 (46.80)
In the neighbouring habitation within a distance of 0.5. km.	41,885	40,771	24,211	13,246	7,214	11,389	2,342	443	18	141,519 (14.67)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.0. km.	56,646	54,256	31,269	16,132	8,623	11,797	1,936	350	13	181,022 (18.77)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.1 to 1.5. km.	17,349	15,573	8,782	4,456	2,440	3,325	594	103	11	52,633 (5.45)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.6 to 2.0. km.	26,254	21,013	11,574	5,819	2,843	3,644	729	157	13	72,046 (7.47)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of more than 2.0. km.	30,198	18,677	8,833	3,710	1,776	2,135	468	172	18	65,987 (6.84)
Total :	182,913	183,414	131,630	93,340	68,365	173,727	91,799	35,069	4,407	964,664 (100.0)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentages of habitations in various population slabs served by primary schools/sections in them or in the neighbouring habitations at various distances.

Table 3. Habitations in various population slabs served by middle schools/sections (1978)

Distance at which middle schools/sections are available	*Population slabs*					
	Below 500	*500-999*	*1000-1999*	*2000-4999*	*5000 & above*	*Total*
Within the habitation	16,913	24,283	34,736	23,745	3,927	103,604 (10.74)
In the neighbouring habitation within a distance of 1.0. km.	115,162	28,098	11,417	2,872	156	157,705 (16.35)
In the neighbouring habitation within a distance of 1.1. km. to 2.0. km.	147,570	40,366	16,313	3,327	138	207,714 (21.53)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 2.1 to 3.0. km.	126,148	34,262	13,042	2,406	90	175,948 (18.24)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 3.1 to 4.0. km.	79,396	18,324	6,695	1,113	35	105,563 (10.94)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 4.1 to 5.0. km.	56,791	12,386	4,537	750	24	74,488 (7.72)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of more than 5 km.	117,682	16,008	5,059	856	37	139,642 (14.48)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentages of habitations in various population slabs served by middle schools/sections in them or in the neighbouring habitations at various distances.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Rural population served by primary and middle sections. In 1978, 92.82 per cent of the rural population had primary school facilities within the habitation of residence or up to a walking distance of 1 km. The percentage of the population served by primary schools/sections either within the habitation or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 1 km was 90.34 in 1973 (Table 4). Similarly, compared to 41.17 per cent in 1973, 46.57 per cent of the population had facilities for middle school education either within the habitation or within a distance of 1 km (Table 5).

Table 4. Percentage of rural population served by primary schools/sections (1973 and 1978)

Distance at which Primary school/section is available	*Percentage of population served by primary sections/schools*	
	1973	*1978*
Within the habitation	76.12	78.53
In the neighbouring habitation up to a distance of 0.5 km.	5.74	6.60
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 0.6 to 1.0 km.	8.48	7.69
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.1 to 1.5 km.	2.31	2.20
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.6 to 2.0 km.	3.93	2.83
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of more than 2.0 km.	3.42	2.15
Total :	100.00	100.00

Source: i) 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training; New Delhi; 1977 (for 1973).
ii) 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982 (for 1978).

The percentage of population served by middle schools/sections either within the habitation or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 3 km rose from 71.97 in 1973 to 78.83 in 1978. In terms of coverage, therefore, primary education facilities have been

Table 5. Percentage of rural population served by middle schools/sections (1973 and 1978)

Distance at which middle schools/ sections are available	*Percentage of population served by middle schools/sections*	
	1973	*1978*
Within the habitation	28.86	33.47
In the neighbouring habitation within a distance of 1.0 km.	12.31	13.10
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.1 to 2.0 km.	15.54	17.78
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 2.1 to 3.0 km.	15.26	14.48
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 3.1 to 4.0 km.	8.45	7.90
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 4.1 to 5.0 km.	6.49	5.37
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of more than 5.0 km.	13.09	7.90
Total :	100.00	100.00

Note: i) 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982 (for 1978).

ii) 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1977 (for 1973).

made available to most rural habitations. Coverage of the population by schooling facilities has become more or less universal as far as education at the primary stage is concerned, while middle school facilities have been made available within a walking distance of 3 km to more than three-fourths of the population of the country.

Schooling facilities in habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes and Schedule Tribes. There have been variations in the availability of educational facilities for rural habitations, especially in the case of those predominantly populated by the disadvantaged sections of society, such as the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. In 1978, in the country as a whole, 93.06 per cent of habitations with a population of 300 or more were served by primary schools/sections within the habitations or up to a distance of 1 km

(Table 6). Over 90 per cent of the habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes were served by primary schools/sections within the habitation of residence or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 1 km. For the habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Tribes, the corresponding percentage was 90.49. It is, therefore, evident that compared to the population as a whole, the Scheduled Castes and Tribes were not as well served by primary schooling facilities.

Table 6. Habitation with population of 300 or more served by primary schools/sections (1978)

Type of habitations	*Number of habitations with population of 300 or more*	*Number and percentage of habitations served by primary schools/sections*		
		Within the habitation	*Upto 1.0 km*	*Upto 2.0 km*
All habitations	466,705	360,791 (77.31)	434,294 (93.06)	458,428 (98.23)
Habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes.	24,198	16,199 (66.94)	21,936 (90.65)	23,706 (97.97)
Habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Tribes.	41,550	32,319 (77.78)	37,597 (90.49)	39,800 (95.79)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate the percentage of habitations with population of 300 or more served by primary schools/sections.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982. (for 1978)

The variations in the availability of educational facilities in habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are more glaring in the case of middle schools/sections (Table 7). The percentages of habitations with a population of 500 or more and predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes (13.4) and Scheduled Tribes (21.41) served by middle schools/sections within the habitations were less than the percentage for all habitations (28.42). A similar trend was seen in the case of middle school facilities up to a distance of 3 km from the habitation of residence. The percentage of habitations with a population of 500 or more and predominantly populated by Scheduled Tribes served by middle

Table 7. Habitation with population of 500 or more served by middle schools/sections (1978)

Type of habitations	*Number of habitations with population of 500 or more*	*Number and percentage of habitations served by middle schools/sections*			
		Within habitation	*Up to 1.0 km*	*Up to 2.0 km*	*Up to 3.0 km*
All habitations	305,002	86,691 (28.42)	129,234 (42.37)	189,378 (62.09)	239,178 (78.42)
Habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes.	13,159	1,773 (13.47)	4,323 (32.85)	7,458 (56.68)	9,895 (75.20)
Habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Tribes.	17,848	3,824 (21.43)	5,627 (31.53)	8,516 (47.71)	11,442 (64.11)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate the percentage of habitations with population of 500 or more served by middle schools/sections.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

schools/sections within them or up to a distance of 3 km was 64.11, while this percentage was 75.22 for habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes and 78.42 for all habitations.

Habitations and population not served by primary and middle school facilities. In order to provide school facilities within easy walking distance of the home of every child, efforts have been made to provide all habitations which do not have primary school facilities and which have a population of about 300, with primary schools/sections within a distance of 1 km. Similarly, efforts have been made to provide schoolless habitations with middle schools/sections within 3 km.

In spite of the substantial progress achieved, there are still a large number of habitations which have no school within a reasonable walking distance. In 1978, 53.20 per cent of rural habitations were without primary schools/sections (Table 8). However, in 41.91 per cent of the habitations, the average population was less than 300

Table 8. Habitations in various population slabs not served by primary schools/sections. (1978)

Population slab	*Number of habitations*	*Habitations not served by primary schools/sections*			
		Within the habitation	*Up to 1.0 km*	*Up to 1.5 km*	*Up to 2.0 km*
Below 100	182,913	172,332	73,801	56,452	30,198
100–199	183,414	150,290	55,263	39,690	18,677
200–299	131,630	81,669	29,189	20,407	8,833
300–399	93,340	43,363	13,985	9,529	3,710
400–499	68,365	22,896	7,059	4,619	1,776
500–999	173,727	32,290	9,104	5,779	2,135
1000–1999	91,799	6,069	1,791	1,197	468
2000–4999	35,069	1,225	432	329	172
5000 and above	4,407	73	42	31	18
Total:	964,664	510,207 (53.20)	190,666 (19.77)	138,033 (14.31)	65,987 (6.84)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentage to the total number of habitations.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

and the child population was not sufficient to make the establishment of an independent primary school either economically feasible or academically viable. The population of the habitations not served by a primary school/section up to a distance of 1 km was 7.18 per cent of the total rural population.

Over the years, however, efforts have been made to increase the availability of primary schooling in habitations with a population of less than 300. As a result, the percentage of habitations with population less than 300 and not served by primary schools/sections within a distance of 1 km decreased from 189,359 (19.85 per cent) in 1973 to 158,253 (16.40 per cent) in 1978 (Table 9). During the period 1973-1978, the percentage of habitations with a population less than 300 and served by primary school facilities within 1 km increased from 32.13 to 35.21.

Table 9. Rural habitations with population slab of less than 300 served/unserved by primary schools/sections up to a distance of one kilometre (1973 and 1978)

Population slab	*Habitations served by primary schools/sections up to 1.0 km*		*Habitations not served by primary schools/sections up to 1.0 km*	
	1973	*1978*	*1973*	*1978*
Below 100	104,432	109,112	88,248	73,801
100–199	112,077	128,151	65,846	55,263
200–299	89,902	102,441	35,265	29,189
Total:	306,411 (32.13)	339,704 (35.21)	189,359 (19.85)	158,253 (16.40)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentage to the total number of habitations.

Source: 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1977 (for 1973).

'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982 (for 1978).

As regards facilities for education at the middle stage, of the 319,693 habitations not served by middle schools/sections within the habitation or up to a distance of 3 km, 253,869 (79.41 per cent) habitations had an average population below 500 (Table 10). These habitations would have less than 40 children in the age group 11-14, since population in the age group 11-14 constitutes about 8 to 9 per cent of the total population. This number of children is too small to allow the establishment of an independent middle school/section. It is, therefore, necessary to think of alternatives such as grouping of schools, or providing peripatetic teachers, residential schools or transport facilities.

Table 10. Habitations in various population slabs not served by middle schools/sections (1978)

Population slab	*Number of habitations*	*Habitations not served by middle schools/sections*		
		Within the habitation	*Up to 3.0 km*	*Up to 5.0 km*
Below 500	659,662	642,749	253,869	117,682
500–999	173,727	149,444	46,718	16,008
1000–1999	91,799	57,063	16,291	5,059
2000–4999	35,069	11,324	2,719	856
5000 & above	4,407	480	96	37
Total:	964,664	861,060 (89.26)	319,693 (33.14)	139,642 (14.48)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentage to the total number of habitations.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

There was, however, a decrease in the number of habitations not served by a middle school facility during the period 1973-1978. The number of habitations without middle schools/sections within 3 km declined from 388,439 (41.74 per cent) in 1973 to 319,663 (33.14 per cent) in 1978.

Sparseness of the population is not the only reason why some habitations do not have schooling facilities within a reasonable walking distance. Location of schools is sometimes based on considerations other than educational or economic viability. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' has, for instance, revealed that in 1978 there were habitations where no school existed, although their population justified it. There were 39,657 habitations which had a population of 500 or more but had no primary schooling facilities. Of these, 11,369 (28.67 per cent) habitations had no primary schooling facility within a distance of 1 km. On the other hand, 90,666 habitations with a population below 300 had primary school facilities within them and of these 40,771 (45.97 per cent) had an average population between 100 and 200, and 10,581 (11.66 per cent) below 100.

Regional disparity in the provision of schooling facilities. In the provision of educational facilities, there has been substantial disparity among the various states and Union Territories which constitute the Indian Republic. For instance, while for the country as a whole, primary school facilities within the habitation were available for 78.53 per cent of the rural population in 1978, the variation in the coverage ranged between 38.01 per cent in Himachal Pradesh and 100.00 per cent in Lakshadweep (Annexe Table II). The percentage of the population served by a primary school/section within the habitation was over 90 per cent in the case of seven states and one Union Territory. Six states and three Union Territories had a coverage between 80 and 90 per cent, five states and two Union Territories between 70 and 80 per cent, two states and two Union Territories between 50 and 60 per cent and two states and one Union Territory below 50 per cent. The same disparity prevailed in respect of availability of primary school facilities within a walking distance of 1 km.

In the case of middle school facilities, 33.47 per cent of the rural population had facilities within the habitation in 1978. The coverage in this regard varied between 7.66 per cent for Sikkim and 99.64 per cent for Lakshadweep. The percentage of the population served by middle schools/sections within a walking distance of 3 km also varied from state/Union Territory to state/Union Territory. For the country as a whole, in 1978, 78.83 per cent of the rural population was served by a middle school/section within a distance of 3 km. The coverage, however, ranged between 100 per cent for Chandigarh and 28.15 per cent for Arunachal Pradesh.

The ratio of primary sections to the population also varies in different states and Union Territories. In 1978, in the country as a whole, there were 8.89 primary sections per 10,000 population. Among the states, the highest number of primary sections (29.55) per 10,000 population was in Meghalaya followed by Manipur (27.25), Nagaland (18.03), Jammu & Kashmir (16.59), Sikkim (14.90) and Himachal Pradesh (14.53). Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Punjab, Tripura, and West

Bengal were the other states which had more primary sections than the national average of 8.89. Kerala had only 3.75 primary sections per 10,000 population. This was mainly due to large-sized primary sections in Kerala. Among the Union Territories, Dadra & Nagar Haveli had the highest number of primary sections (16.16) and Chandigarh the lowest (2.36) per 10,000 population.

It should, however, be noted that a higher ratio of primary sections to the population in a state/Union Territory does not necessarily imply that there are better opportunities for primary education there. The size of the primary sections in sparsely populated states is small and, therefore, even if the number of primary sections is large the enrolment ratio may be lower than that in states where the ratio of primary sections to the population is low.

Size of primary and middle schools. Schools that are established may not always be viable on economic grounds or academic considerations. The Education Commission (1964-1966) recommended that the optimum enrolment of a primary school with four or five teachers range between 160 and 200. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) provided data on primary schools according to teachers and enrolment size. It revealed that only 18.66 per cent of primary schools satisfied this criterion. The percentage of such schools in rural areas was only 14.29 as against 54.61 in urban areas.

The enrolment in the majority of independent primary schools is low. The proportion of schools with low enrolments is particularly large in rural areas (Table 11). In the country as a whole 315,622 (66.5 per cent) had an enrolment of 100 or less and 153,678 (32.38 per cent) had an enrolment of 50 or less. The percentage of rural primary schools which had an enrolment of 100 or less was 70.53, while the percentage of schools with an enrolment of 50 or less was 34.81. There also existed a large number of middle schools with low enrolments (Table 12). Almost 22 per cent of the middle schools had an enrolment of only 100 or less, while 7.92 per cent had only 50 or less. In rural areas 24.34 per cent of middle schools had an enrolment of 100 or less as against 9.45 per cent in urban areas.

The sparseness of the population of the rural habitations is one of the reasons for low enrolment in a large number of primary and middle schools. The other is the low utilization of the schooling facility. Low enrolment affects the efficiency of schooling since the

Table 11. Primary schools according to enrolment (1978)

Enrolment	*Number of primary schools*			*Percentage to the total Number of primary schools*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Zero	1,114	75	1,189	0.26	0.17	0.25
1–25	39,139	764	39,903	9.07	1.78	8.41
26–50	109,980	2,606	112,586	25.48	6.06	23.72
51–75	90,384	3,363	93,747	20.94	7.81	19.75
76–100	63,776	4,421	68,197	14.78	10.27	14.37
101–150	66,842	8,073	74,915	15.49	18.76	15.78
151–200	30,997	7,034	38,031	7.18	16.35	8.01
201–250	14,820	5,234	20,054	3.43	12.16	4.23
Above 250	14,550	11,464	26,014	3.37	26.64	5.48
Total :	431,602	43,034	474,636	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Table 12. Middle schools according to enrolment (1978)

Enrolment	*Number of middle schools*			*Percentage to the total number of middle schools*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Zero	8,391	510	8,901	8.91	2.80	**9.92**
51–100	14,536	1,211	15,747	15.43	6.65	**14.01**
101–150	17,665	1,646	19,311	18.76	9.03	**17.18**
151–200	16,459	1,948	18,407	17.48	10.69	**16.38**
201–300	19,520	3,332	22,852	20.73	18.28	**20.33**
301–400	9,345	2,895	12,240	9.92	15.89	**10.89**
401–500	4,072	2,216	6,288	4.32	12.16	**5.59**
Above 500	4,192	4,466	8,658	4.45	24.50	**7.70**
Total :	94,180	18,224	112,404	100.00	100.00	**100.00**

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

enrolment of the school has an important bearing on the cost of education, school organization, and the type of instructional programmes offered to meet the needs of children. Small enrolments do not allow the appointment of the required number of teachers on cost considerations. This in turn affects the quality of education offered at the primary stage.

Incomplete primary and middle schools. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' also indicated that in 1978, 20.1 per cent of primary schools and 11 per cent of middle schools did not have all the classes covering primary and middle stages of education. Over 20 per cent of the primary schools in rural areas were incomplete, as against 19.28 per cent in urban areas. The percentages of incomplete middle schools in rural and urban areas were 11.5 and 8.46 respectively.

A large number of children from areas having incomplete schools stop their studies since facilities are limited for continuing their education in the neighbourhood or within an easy walking distance. This makes it imperative that special efforts be made to provide facilities for education in Classes I-V in incomplete primary schools and in Classes VI-VIII in all incomplete middle schools.

Enrolment at the primary and middle stage

Although it has not been possible to attain the goal of universal enrolment, the progress achieved in increasing enrolment so far has indeed been remarkable. The total enrolment in Classes I-V increased from 19.155 million in 1950-1951 to 73.563 million in 1981-1982 (Table 13). The total enrolment in Classes I-V rose by 3.8 times during the period 1950-1951 to 1981-1982. The enrolment of boys rose by about 3.3 times while for girls it increased by about 5.3 times.

A substantial increase in enrolment at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII) was also achieved during the past three decades of planned economic development. The enrolment in Classes VI-VIII increased from 3.120 million in 1950-1951 to 21.055 million in 1981-1982 (Table 14).

The total enrolment of children in Classes I-VIII increased from 22.275 million in 1950-1951 to 94.618 million in 1981-1982, thus

Table 13. Enrolment in Classes I-V (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Enrolment (in millions)*			*Percentage of children enrolled in Classes I-V to total population in the age group 6-11*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1950–1951	13.770	5.385	19.155	60.8	24.9	42.6
1955–1956	17.528	7.639	25.167	72.0	32.8	52.8
1960–1961	23.593	11.401	34.994	82.6	41.4	62.4
1965–1966	31.160	17.675	48.835	96.3	56.5	76.7
1970–1971	35.739	21.306	57.045	92.6	59.1	76.4
1975–1976	40.649	25.011	65.660	95.7	62.0	79.3
1980–1981 (P)	44.576	28.112	72.688	99.0	66.2	83.1
1981–1982 (P)	44.976	28.587	73.563	99.4	66.9	83.7

(P) Provisional

Source: i) *A Handbook of educational & allied statistics*, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1960-1961, 1970-1971 and 1975-1976).

ii) 'Second All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1967 (for 1965-1966).

iii) 'Education in the Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-1979)', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1972 (for 1955-1956).

iv) 'Selected educational statistics' (1980-1981 and 1981-1982), Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1980-1981 and 1981-1982).

Table 14. Enrolment in Classes VI-VIII (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Enrolment (in millions)*			*Percentage of children enrolled in Classes VI-VIII to total population in the age group 11-14*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1950–1951	2.586	0.534	3.120	20.8	4.3	12.9
1955–1956	3.426	0.867	4.293	25.4	6.9	16.5
1960–1961	5.074	1.630	6.704	32.2	11.3	22.5
1965–1966	7.523	2.721	10.244	44.2	17.0	30.9
1970–1971	9.426	3.889	13.315	46.5	20.8	34.2
1975–1976	10.990	5.034	16.024	47.0	23.3	35.6
1980–1981 (P)	13.278	6.568	19.846	52.1	27.2	40.0
1981–1982 (P)	13.971	7.084	21.055	54.2	29.1	41.9

(P) : Provisional

Source: i) 'A Handbook of educational & allied statistics', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1960-1961, 1970-1971 and 1975-1976).

ii) 'Second All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1967 (for 1965-1966).

iii) 'Education in the Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-1979)', Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Government of India, 1972 (for 1955-1956).

iv) 'Selected educational statistics (1980-1981 & 1981-1982)', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, (for 1980-1981 and 1981-1982).

registering a more than fourfold increase. The enrolment of boys in Classes I-VIII increased from 16.356 million to 58.947 million, while the enrolment of girls increased from 5.919 million to 35.671 million. In the case of girls the increase has been almost sixfold.

There has also been a noticeable increase in the percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment. The percentage of girls enrolled in Classes I-V rose from 28.10 in 1950-1951 to 38.86 in 1981-1982, while the percentage of girls enrolled in Classes VI-VIII increased from 17.12 to 33.65.

The gross enrolment ratio at the primary stage (percentage of children enrolled in Classes I-V to the total population in the age group 6-10) also registered a considerable increase from 42.6 to 83.7 during the period 1950-1951 to 1981-1982. During this period the gross enrolment ratio at the middle stage (percentage of children enrolled in Classes VI-VIII to the total population in the age group 11-14) increased from 12.9 to 41.9.

Increase in enrolment in rural areas. The enrolment of children at the primary and middle stages in rural areas has also increased a great deal during the past few years. The Second, Third and Fourth All India educational surveys have provided data on enrolment in rural areas. Enrolment in classes I-V in rural areas increased from 38.151 million in 1965 to 51.932 million in 1978 (Table 15). The percentage increase in enrolment during 1965-1978 was 36.12 and in the case of boys and girls the percentage increases were 32.09 and 43.88 respectively.

At the middle stage, the enrolment in rural areas increased from 5,907 million in 1965 to 10.960 million in 1978 (Table 16). While the total enrolment increased by 85.54 per cent, the enrolment of boys and girls in Classes VI-VIII during the period 1965-1978 increased by 67.94 per cent and 155.01 per cent respectively.

Increase in enrolment of children from disadvantaged populations. The enrolment of children belonging to the disadvantaged sections of society such as the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes has also increased considerably in recent years. The gross enrolment ratio of children belonging to the Scheduled Castes in Classes I-V rose from 59.7 in 1970-1971 to 86.0 in 1981-1982. During the same period, the gross enrolment ratio for Scheduled Tribes in Classes I-V increased from 48.6 to 73.7.

Table 15. Enrolment in Classes I-V (rural and urban areas)

Year	*Enrolment in rural schools (millions)*			*Percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment.*	*Enrolment in urban schools (millions)*			*Percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment*
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*		*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*	
1965–1966	25.091	13.060	38.151	34.23	6.068	4.615	10.683	43.20
1973–1974	30.233	16.891	47.124	35.84	7.913	6.218	14.131	44.00
1978–1979	33.141	18.791	51.932	36.18	9.210	7.461	16.671	44.75

Source: i) 'Second All India educational survey', National Council of Education Research and Training, New Delhi, 1967 (for 1965-1966).

ii) 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1977 (for 1973-1974).

iii) 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982 (for 1978-1979).

Table 16. Enrolment in Classes VI-VIII (rural and urban areas)

Year	*Enrolment in rural schools (millions)*			*Percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment*	*Enrolment in urban schools (millions)*			*Percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment*
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*		*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*	
1965–1966	4.710	1.196	5.906	20.25	2.813	1.525	4.338	35.15
1973–1974	6.299	2.136	8.435	25.33	3.353	2.161	5.514	39.19
1978–1979	7.910	3.050	10.960	27.83	4.176	2.822	6.998	40.33

Source: i) 'Second All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1967 (for 1965-1966).
ii) 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1979 (for 1973-1974).
iii) 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982 (for 1978-1979).

The gross enrolment ratio of children belonging to Scheduled Castes in Classes VI-VIII registered an increase from 20.5 in 1970-1971 to 32.6 in 1981-1982. The enrolment ratio for children belonging to Scheduled Tribes in Classes VI-VIII rose from 12.9 to 21.9 during this period.

Disparity in enrolment among regions. Wide variations in enrolment ratios of the states and Union Territories, both for the primary and middle stages are noticeable (Annex Table III). During 1981-1982, at the primary stage, 11 states and six Union Territories achieved a gross enrolment ratio of over 100 per cent. One state had a gross enrolment ratio between 90 and 100 per cent, six states between 80 and 90, two between 70 and 80, one between 60 and 70 and two between 50 and 60. In the case of the enrolment ratio for girls, seven states and three Union Territories had enrolment ratios over 100 per cent, and two states and three Union Territories over 90 per cent but below 100 per cent. The enrolment ratios for girls in classes I-V were between 40 and 50 in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and less than 40 in Rajasthan.

At the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII), in 1981-1982, the gross enrolment ratios in Nagaland and Lakshadweep were over 100 per cent (Annex Table IV). In Kerala and Goa, Daman & Diu, the enrolment ratios at the middle stage were between 80 and 90 per cent. It ranged between 70 and 80 per cent in Himachal Pradesh and A & N Islands, between 60 and 70 per cent in Punjab and Pondicherry, between 50 and 60 in Gujarat, Haryana Maharashtra, Manipur and Tamil Nadu. However, the ratio for Orissa, Rajasthan and West Bengal was between only 30 and 40 per cent, and between 20 and 30 in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar and Arunachal Pradesh. The enrolment ratio for girls at the middle stage was highest in Kerala (85.6) and lowest in Bihar (11.7).

The major proportion of non-enrolled children, both at the primary and middle stages, are in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. These states together contribute more than 75 per cent of non-enrolled children at the elementary stage. Special efforts for enrolling children, especially girls and children from the weaker sections of society, are being made in order to achieve the target of universal enrolment at the primary and middle stages in these states.

Apart from the inter-state disparity in enrolment in Classes I-V and VI-VIII, there also exist intra-state disparities. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) made available data for the proportion of children enrolled by district. The data for nine states, presented in (Annex V) give an idea of the wide disparity that prevails in the states. In Andhra Pradesh, the enrolment in (Classes I-V) as a percentage of the population in the age group 6-11 years in rural areas, varied from 102.68 per cent in Nellore to 45.82 in Adilabad. The percentage ranged from 106.32 in N.C. Hills to 65.31 in Darrang in Assam, 91.18 in Nalanda to 43.92 in West Champaran in Bihar, 83.98 in Jammu to 45.86 in Srinagar in Jammu & Kashmir, and 78.52 in Betul to 39.22 in Jhabua in Madhya Pradesh. In the case of Orissa, the percentage of children enrolled in Classes I-V varied from 101.78 in Balassore to 69.55 in Kalahandi.

The enrolment in Classes I-V as a percentage of the population in the age group 6-11 in rural areas, ranged from 80.63 in Kota to 47.57 in Bikner in Rajasthan, 116.50 in Dehradun to 44.26 in Rampur in Uttar Pradesh and 106.32 in Howrah to 64.51 in Murshidabad in West Bengal.

Inter-district disparities are not only found in the above mentioned states, which are considered to be backward in respect of enrolment. Even in states where the overall enrolment ratios are very high, wide disparities between districts prevail, particularly in the proportion of girls that are enrolled in schools. For instance, in Nagaland the enrolment of girls, as a percentage of the total enrolment in Classes I-V, ranged from 28.2 to 49.6 and in Classes VI-VIII from 30.1 to 46.8. In Maharashtra, these percentages varied from 32.8 to 46.4 for Grades I-V and from 21.9 to 43.5 for Grades VI-VIII. It is only in Kerala, which is considered to be the most educationally advanced State in the country, that the disparity is less wide, with the enrolment of girls constituting 43 to 49 per cent of the total enrolment in all the districts in both primary and middle stages.

Disparity in enrolment among population groups. Although great strides have been made in increasing the enrolment of children both at the primary and middle stages, there still exists a wide disparity in enrolment between boys and girls and between the general population on the one hand and Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes on the other. While the enrolment ratio for boys in Classes I-V in 1981-1982 was 99.4, it was only 66.9 in the case of girls. At the middle stage while the ratio for boys was 54.2 it was only 29.1 in the case of girls.

The enrolment of girls in rural areas continues to be low. According to the Fourth All India Educational Survey (1978) enrolment of children in Classes I-V in rural areas was 75.70 per cent of the total enrolment in the country. Girls in rural areas constituted only 36.18 per cent of the total enrolment in rural areas. In urban areas, the percentages of enrolment of boys and girls were 55.25 and 44.75 respectively.

Enrolment of girls at the middle stage in rural areas also lagged far behind that of boys. In 1978, while in urban areas girls constituted 40.33 per cent of the total enrolment, in rural areas their proportion was only 27.83 per cent. Thus, a far lower percentage of girls in rural areas is enrolled in schools than in urban areas.

For various reasons all sections of the population are not able to take advantage of educational opportunities in equal measure. For instance, in the case of girls social prejudices intervene and result in their non-enrolment or premature withdrawal from schools. Certain communities like the Scheduled Tribes live in isolated areas where the establishment of schools presents considerable difficulties. Children, especially girls, from Scheduled Castes suffer from social handicaps which prevent them from taking advantage of the educational facilities provided.

The enrolment levels at the middle stage for children belonging to Scheduled Castes and both at the primary and middle stages for children belonging to Scheduled Tribes, have been low compared to their levels within the general population (Table 2.17). In 1981-1982, the gross enrolment ratio of Scheduled Castes children in Classes VI-VIII was only 32.6 as compared to 41.9 in the case of the total population. While the gross enrolment ratio for boys and girls for the total population at the middle stages were 54.2 and 29.1 respectively, the corresponding figures for boys and girls belonging to Scheduled Castes were 45.9 and 18.5.

When the enrolment ratios of children belonging to Scheduled Castes are examined by state, these ratios at the primary stage for the States of Bihar (55.3), Haryana (62.4), Jammu & Kashmir (73.9), Karnataka (69.3), Orissa (81.2), Rajasthan (53.5), Uttar Pradesh

Table 17. Enrolment ratios of students belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (1981-1982)

Population group	*Enrolment ratio at the primary stage (Classes I-V)*			*Enrolment ratio at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII)*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Both sexes*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Both sexes*
Scheduled Castes	109.2	61.4	86.0	45.9	18.5	32.6
Scheduled Tribes	95.8	50.2	73.7	30.8	12.6	21.9
General Population	99.4	66.9	83.7	54.2	29.1	41.9

Source: 'Selected educational statistics, 1981-1982', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983.

(64.6) and West Bengal (62.3) are found to be below the corresponding overall population enrolment ratios. The enrolment is significantly on the low side when compared to the proportion of Scheduled Castes population in these states, in which they form over ten per cent of the population. A similar analysis of enrolment of Scheduled Castes children at the middle stage shows that in 1981-1982, Bihar (13.5), Haryana (28.7), Madhya Pradesh (27.2), Orissa (21.6), Rajasthan (20.1), Uttar Pradesh (23.4) and West Bengal (19.3) had enrolment ratios below the corresponding enrolment ratios for the overall population.

The gross enrolment ratio of Scheduled Tribe children in Classes I-V has been much lower than that for the general population. In 1981-1982, the enrolment ratio in Classes I-V of children belonging to Scheduled Tribes was only 73.7 as compared to 83.7 for the total population (Table 17). While the overall enrolment ratio for boys and girls were 99.4 and 66.9, the corresponding ratio for children belonging to Scheduled Tribes were 95.8 and 50.2 respectively. The disparity in enrolment ratio of Scheduled Tribes children and others is more glaring at the middle stage. In 1981-1982, the overall enrolment ratio in Classes VI-VIII was 41.79, while for children belonging to Scheduled Tribes it was only 21.9. While in the case of the total population, the enrolment ratios for boys and girls in Classes VI-VIII were 54.2 and 29.1, the corresponding figures for boys and girls belonging to Scheduled Tribes were only 30.8 and 12.6 respectively.

In eight states, the enrolment ratios of Scheduled Tribes children in Classes I-V were lower than the corresponding overall population enrolment ratios. The enrolment level was particularly low in the States of Madhya Pradesh (44.5) and Rajasthan (49.6) compared to the Scheduled Tribes population in these states. This is true of enrolment ratios at the middle stage also.

The states with a large proportion of Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and with disproportionatly low enrolment ratios for children belonging to these communities need to make special efforts to bring these disadvantaged groups up to par with others in the same state.

Problem of non-enrolment of children. The gross enrolment ratios of 83.7 in Classes I-V and 41.9 in Classes VI-VIII, as reported for 1981-1982, are only a crude indicator of the progress of universal enrolment. They do not specify the proportion of children in the age group 6-11 who are actually enrolled in Classes I-V and those in the age group 11-14 actually enrolled in Classes VI-VIII. The gross enrolment ratio at the primary stage only compares the total enrolment of all children, irrespective of age, in Classes I-V with the total population of children in the age group 6-11. Normally the enrolment in Classes I-V includes not only children in the age group 6-11 but also children below 6 and above 11 years of age. The over-age and the under-age children normally studying in Classes I-V are, therefore, included in the enrolment figure which results in an inflated enrolment ratio. Thus, the net enrolment ratio would be less than the gross enrolment ratio. Roughly the percentage of over-aged and under-aged children studying in classes I-V is estimated to be about 22.

This suggests that enrolment at the primary stage should reach around 122 per cent of the total population of children in the age group 6-11 to ensure that every child in the age group 6-11 is enrolled in school.

During the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) data were collected on the number of children in the age group 6 to 10+ enrolled in Classes I-V. In 1978, the age-specific enrolment ratio for the age group 6 to 10+ was 64.13. For boys and girls separately, these ratios were 76.27 and 51.28 respectively. The corresponding ratios for rural areas were 61.72 (total), 75.05 (boys) and 47.36 (girls) respectively. The age specific ratio for girls in the age group 6 to 10+ in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Haryana, Jammu & Kashmir

Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Uttar Pradesh and Arunachal Pradesh was less than the corresponding ratio (51.28) for girls in the country.

The 'Fourth All India educational survey' also revealed that the age-specific enrolment ratio for the age group 6 to 10+ was lower in rural areas than that in urban areas. For girls both in rural and urban areas, the age-specific enrolment ratio was quite low. The survey revealed that about 36 per cent of children in the age group 6 to 10+ were outside the school system.

The age-specific enrolment ration for the age group 11 to below 14 in Classes VI-VIII was 41.72 for the country. The ratios for boys and girls were 53.44 and 29.29 respectively. The corresponding ratios for rural areas were 37.09 (total), 49.27 (boys) and 23.71 (girls) respectively. For urban areas the ratios were 55.0, 66.05 and 44.31 for total, boys and girls respectively. The age specific enrolment ratio for the age group 11 to below 14 in Classes VI-VIII was highest in Kerala (76.75) and lowest in Bihar (25.90).

Universal retention

While the increase in enrolment at the elementary stage recorded during the past three decades has been satisfactory, the problem of stagnation and drop-out has been more or less negating the progress achieved. Students taking more than the required time to complete a class and/or dropping out of the system without obtaining a minimum basic education, have been the two major deficiencies of elementary education. A large number of children enrolled at the elementary stage repeat the same class for one or more years, while others leave school at different points before completing the elementary stage. Thus, out of the children on roll in any year in Class I only a few reach Class V in a period of four years and fewer reach Class VIII in a period of seven years.

For instance, against a total enrolment of 13,391,347 children in Class I in 1960-1961, only 4,964,247 (37.1 per cent) were on roll in Class V in 1964-1965, i.e., after four years; and only 3,244,645 (24.2 per cent) were on roll in Class VIII in 1967-1968, i.e., after seven years (Annex VI). This would seem to indicate that stagnation and drop-out at the primary stage was 62.9 per cent in the period 1960-1961 to 1964-1965 and for the entire elementary stage approximately 75.8 per cent from 1960-1961 to 1967-1968. There has not been much change in the rates of stagnation and drop-out over the years. Against an enrolment of 21,118,992 in Class I in 1971-1972, only 7,848,656 (37.2 per cent) were on roll in Class V in 1975-1976 and only 4,988,525 (23.6 per cent) on roll in Class VIII in 1978-1979.

Extent of stagnation and drop-out. Carefully conducted sample studies have helped in determining the extent of stagnation and drop-out at the elementary stage. A Study[1] conducted in 13 states on a highly restricted sample in 1976 revealed that the rate of stagnation and drop-out was higher in rural schools than in urban schools. The data were collected from the sampled schools for five years, from 1971-1972 to 1975-1976, for boys, girls and children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. In states where primary education consisted of classes I-V (Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, and Uttar Pradesh) the rate of stagnation and drop-out was 52 per cent in rural schools as compared to 27.8 per cent in urban schools. A difference was observable in the case of boys, girls and children belonging to Scheduled Castes. In rural schools, the percentage of stagnation and drop-out for these groups was 43.3, 65.6 and 61.6, while for urban schools these percentages were 32.2, 22.3 and 34.2 respectively. However, in the case of Scheduled Tribes the rate of overall wastage was found to be lower in rural schools (21.4 per cent) as compared to urban schools (85.0 per cent).

The study also revealed that the repetition rate was considerably more than that of drop-out in the case of schools having Classes I-V. A large proportion of repeaters were in Class I as compared to higher classes. While there were more repeaters in rural areas, the number of drop-outs was higher in urban areas.

In states where the primary stage consisted of Classes I-IV (Assam, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, and West Bengal) stagnation and drop-out rates were found to be higher in rural schools than in urban schools. For the cohort year 1971-1972, the overall stagnation and drop-out rate was 44.0 per cent, 50.6 per cent in rural schools and 36.3 per cent in urban schools. In the case of girls, the stagnation and drop-out rates were 48.1 per cent (total), 52.0 per cent in rural and 44.1 per cent in urban areas. In the case of boys, stagnation and drop-out was 41.2 per cent, 49.7 per cent in rural schools and 30.5 per cent in urban schools. In states where the primary stage consisted of Classes I-V, the rate of repeating in rural schools was found to be quite high in Class I among all categories of pupils – boys, girls, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes – while between Classes III and IV the rate was lower.

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[1] 'Stagnation and drop-out at primary stage – a sample survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1981.

The incidence of stagnation and drop-out was one of the aspects investigated under a project[1] carried out in three selected blocks each in Chamba district in Himachal Pradesh, Bijapur district in Karnataka and Jalgaon district in Maharashtra. The study revealed that the incidence of stagnation and drop-out was very high in all blocks. In Chamba district in Himachal Pradesh, the overall wastage was 46.3 per cent. In the case of students belonging to Scheduled Tribes, overall wastage was 58.5 per cent, and for boys and girls it was 59.0 per cent and 56.0 per cent respectively. For Scheduled Castes, overall wastage was 42.5 per cent, 45.2 per cent for boys and 36.6 per cent for girls. In one of the blocks in Bijapur district in Karnataka, the rate of repeaters (girls) belonging to Scheduled Castes for Class IV was as high as 91.2 per cent. The study also revealed that in one of the three selected blocks, of the girls belonging to Scheduled Castes admitted in Class I, only 11.9 per cent reached Class IV. Stagnation and drop-out was very high in Jalgaon district in Maharashtra also. In one of the blocks under study only 37.0 per cent of the children admitted in Class I reached Class IV.

Another study[2] conducted in two blocks each in four districts (Gonda, Hamirpur, Sitapur and Pithoragar) in Uttar Pradesh revealed that 62 per cent of the pupils enrolled in Class I leave school before they complete Class V and of those enrolled in Class VI, 18 per cent drop-out before they complete Class VIII. The situation was found to be more or less similar in the case of schools in rural and urban areas. It was noticed that on an average 15 per cent of the enrolled children drop-out every year in different classes. The drop-out rate among girls was higher than among boys. Twenty-two per cent of girls in the school-going age group were drop-outs from schools, as against 12 per cent of boys in the same age group.

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[1] 'An intensive study of provision and utilization of schooling facilities in selected blocks of Chamba District in Himachal Pradesh, Bijapur District in Karnataka and Jalgaon District in Maharashtra' (1977).

[2] 'Problems of non-enrolment, non-attendance and drop-outs in school : study in Uttar Pradesh', Giri Institute of Developmental Studies, Lucknow, 1982.

The rates of drop-out were found to be highest in Classes I and II; 30 per cent of children in the rural schools and 25 per cent in urban schools dropped out in Classes I and II. Children in the age groups of 10, 11 and 12 years constituted the largest proportion of drop-outs, both among boys and girls and in rural and urban areas. The study also revealed that the phenomenon of drop-out takes place most often when the child reaches an age when he or she could be of some help in household chores or some productive activity. It was found that in rural areas Scheduled Castes/Tribes families had a higher number of drop-outs as compared to Muslims and upper caste Hindu families. Muslim families in urban areas, however, had the highest number of drop-outs.

The study also examined the effect of certain household factors such as demographic structure and education in the family on drop-out, and the impact of the conditions of schools. It was observed that larger families had lower drop-out rates than was the case in smaller families. Families with a higher dependency ratio had lower drop-out rates. Retention of children was found to be influenced by the educational background of family members, particularly in rural areas. Drop-outs constituted only two per cent of the school age population in the case of families with a graduate, four per cent in the case of those with a matriculate and nine per cent in the case of those with primary education as the highest education in the family. Families with persons having lower educational levels or illiterates had ten per cent of their children as drop-outs from school.

Among school characteristics the number of pupils per teacher and availability of building, playground and library facilities were consistently related to the drop-out rate. The drop-out rates were found to be less in schools with a lesser number of pupils per teacher, good buildings, playground and library facilities. The drop-out rate was also found to be lower in the case of schools with a local head-master than in schools with a person from outside the village as headmaster.

The problem of wastage and non-participation due to inequality of opportunity in primary education in rural areas in Andhra Pradesh was examined in a Study[1] conducted during 1981-1982. The study was restricted to four districts (Kurnool, Guntur, Mahbubnagar and Medak) in Andhra Pradesh. The study showed that in Kurnool and Guntur districts, stagnation was higher among girls than among boys. Stagnation was highest in Class I as compared to all other classes. The drop-out rates were higher than those of stagnation in Kurnool, while in Guntur the incidence of drop-outs was less than stagnation for all classes. Drop-out rates were found to be higher for girls than for boys in all classes. The rate of drop-out was generally higher in the first two classes.

In Mahbubnagar and Medak districts, educational wastage at the primary stage was of the order of 92 per cent. The average percentages of stagnation for boys and girls at the primary stage in Mahbubnagar district were 45.40 and 47.06 respectively. The average percentages of stagnation for boys and girls at the primary stage in Medak district were found to be 67.12 and 72.57 respectively. It was found that while the percentages of stagnation for Scheduled Castes boys and girls in Mahbubnagar district were 39.38 and 44.61 respectively, the corresponding percentages for Medak district were 70.08 and 66.58 respectively.

The study also attempted to investigate the factors responsible for the widespread occurrence of wastage. One of the factors studied was the quality of education defined in terms of school facilities, residence of teachers and the like. The results of the study did not indicate any strong association between quality of school and wastage in education.

In another study[2] carried out in 1981 in Tumkur district in Karnataka, one of the aspects investigated was the extent of drop-out at the elementary stage of education. Attempts were also made to identify the factors responsible for the incidence of drop-out. The study revealed that the drop-out rate was highest in Class I. The drop-out rate among girls was higher than that of boys. The drop-out rate in illiterate families was found to be three times that in literate families. Households of family size 5-8 in Scheduled Caste/Tribe and other caste communities had the maximum number of drop-outs. Important reasons for the drop-out phenomenon included assistance in household work, tending cattle, looking after younger siblings and working for daily wages.

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[1] 'Wastage, stagnation and inequality of opportunity in rural primary education : a case study of Andhra Pradesh', Administrative Staff College of India, Hyderabad, 1982.

[2] 'A Study of Universal Primary Education – Tumkur District, Karnataka', Institute for Social and Economic Change, Bangalore, 1981.

All studies on stagnation and drop-out have indicated that the holding power of elementary schools in the country is very low. Repetition of classes by children indicates that on an average a child uses more years than the prescribed five of primary education. Most of those who drop-out after Class I or II relapse into illiteracy and add to the growing number of illiterates.

Incentive schemes for enhancing enrolment and retention. Socio-economic compulsions in families, particularly in rural areas and among the weaker sections of society, have contributed to the high rate of drop-outs at the elementary stage of education in India. In order to enhance enrolment and retention at the elementary stage of education, the central and the state governments have focused attention on overcoming the social and economic barriers which prevent children from continuing their education at least up to the end of the elementary stage. The provision of incentives in primary and middle schools is among the important programmes designed to prevent drop-outs as well as to increase the enrolment of children at the elementary stage. Prominent among the incentives being provided in primary and middle schools to students belonging to the socially and economically weaker sections of society are: (i) midday meals; (ii) free uniforms/clothes; (iii) free textbooks and stationery and (iv) attendance scholarships for girls.

Midday meal programme. The midday meal programme is one of the incentive schemes designed to attract socially and economically disadvantaged children to school and retain them up to the end of the elementary stage of education. The 'Third All India educational survey' (1973) indicated that out of the 530,867 recognized primary schools/sections in the country, 135,016 (25.43 per cent) primary schools/sections were covered by the midday meal programme. Almost 26 per cent of primary schools/sections in rural areas and 20.95 per cent in urban areas were covered by the scheme in 1973.

At the time of the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978), out of the 474,636 primary schools in the country, the midday meal programme was available in 126,780. The percentage of primary schools covered was 26.71 per cent. The percentages of primary schools in rural and urban areas which had the midday meal programme were 26.61 and 27.75 respectively. Out of the 112,404 middle schools in the country, 19,610 middle schools (17.45 per cent) provided free midday meals to students from economically poorer families. Over 16 per cent of middle schools in rural areas and 22.73 per cent of middle schools in urban areas were covered by the midday meal programme.

The midday meal programme in primary schools has been largely rural based, except in the States of Kerala and Tamil Nadu where a large proportion of schools in urban areas was also covered under the programme.

Supply of free uniforms/clothes. The inability of parents to provide their children with adequate clothes also contributes a great deal towards children dropping out of schools. As a measure to prevent drop-outs at the elementary stage of education, the central and the state governments, therefore, have initiated schemes for supplying uniforms/clothes to children belonging to the disadvantaged sections of society. At the time of the 'Third All India educational survey' (1973), out of 530,867 primary schools/sections in the country, 64,008 (12.06 per cent) primary schools/sections provided free uniforms/clothes to students from poorer families.

In 1978, free uniforms/ clothes were available in 59,960 primary schools and 10,563 middle schools. Over 54,000 primary schools in rural areas and 4,484 primary schools in urban areas were covered by the scheme. In the case of middle schools in the programme, 8,739 were in rural areas while 1,804 were in urban areas. The percentages of primary and middle schools which supplied free uniforms/clothes to students were 12.42 and 9.40 respectively.

Supply of free textbooks. Another incentive scheme which is designed to prevent drop-outs and enhance enrolment at the primary and middle stages of education is the scheme to supply free textbooks to students from socially and economically disadvantaged sections of society. In 1973, out of the 530,867 primary schools, 27.01 per cent provided free textbooks. Over 27 per cent of the primary schools/sections in rural areas and 25.03 per cent in urban areas were covered by the scheme. Between 1973-1978, there was a significant increase in the number of primary schools covered by the scheme. The percentage of primary schools supplying free textbooks in 1978 was 37.56. Almost 38 per cent of primary schools in rural areas and 34.11 per cent in urban areas were covered by the scheme.

In 1978, 34.93 per cent of the middle schools in the country provided free textbooks to students. The percentages of middle schools in rural and urban areas which had the scheme were 34.19 and 38.75 respectively.

Attendance scholarships for girls. Since a large proportion of drop-outs at the elementary stage have been girls, the Government of India has initiated special measures for promoting education of girls. Prominent among the measures initiated to increase enrolment of girls and to retain them up to Class VIII is the scheme of attendance scholarships for girls from the weaker sections of society, including Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

According to the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978), there were 62,438 primary schools and 18,262 middle schools which provided attendance scholarships for girls. The percentages for primary and middle schools were 13.15 and 16.25 respectively. The scheme was more prevalent in rural schools than in urban schools. Over 59,000 primary schools (13.73 per cent) in rural areas and 3,161 (7.35 per cent) in urban areas provided attendance scholarships for girls. Almost 16,000 (16.96 per cent) middle schools in rural areas and 2,290 (12.57 per cent) middle schools in urban areas were covered by the scheme in 1978.

Qualitative improvement

No doubt, the conditions of the socially disadvantaged and the economically deprived sections of society are among the major factors that contribute to non-enrolment, non-attendance and the high rate of stagnation and drop-out at the elementary stage of education in India. Deficiencies in the present system of education are also equally responsible for the stagnation and drop-out that takes place. The poor quality of education at the elementary stage has been as much a hindering factor in the progress towards universalization of elementary education as the non-availability of facilities or poor enrolment.

Two policies, namely expansion of educational facilities for elementary education and the equalization of educational opportunities have characterized the period of planned development in India since independence. The expansion of educational facilities which was given top priority during the first two decades after independence, has adversely affected the programmes for qualitative improvement in elementary education. Due to resource constraints, adequate inputs for qualitative improvement have not been available. While the number of good schools increased and some of them became better, a number of substandard schools came to be established in order to meet the increasing demand for education.

Some of the factors which have been hindering qualitative improvement of educational practices are inadequate physical facilities such as buildings, furniture and libraries, an inadequate number of teachers in schools, untrained and under-qualified teachers, and curricula which are not relevant to the needs, aspirations and life situations of children.

Types of buildings for schools. A large number of primary and middle schools in the country are housed in unsatisfactory structures, such as open spaces, tents, thatched huts and kuccha buildings. At the time of the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978), 40.10 per cent of primary schools in the country were housed in unsatisfactory structures (Table 18). The position was particularly unsatisfactory in rural areas. Over 42 per cent of the primary schools in rural areas were being run in open spaces, tents, thatched huts and kuccha buildings. In urban areas, 14.38 per cent were housed in unsatisfactory structures, including 2.61 per cent in open spaces.

Among the states, Nagaland had the highest percentage (91.33) of primary schools in unsatisfactory structures. Assam (68.16 per cent), Bihar (60.06 per cent), Himachal Pradesh (72.35 per cent), Jammu & Kashmir (61.08 per cent), Manipur (89.20 per cent), Meghalaya (68.23 per cent), Orissa (53.23 per cent), Tripura (90.59 per cent) and West Bengal (59.14 per cent) had more than 50 per cent of primary schools housed in unsatisfactory structures. Among the Union Territories, Arunachal Pradesh had the highest percentage (88.57) of primary schools with unsatisfactory structures. Dadra & Nagar Haveli (52.23 per cent) and Mizoram (82.75 per cent) had more than 50 per cent of primary schools housed in unsatisfactory structures.

Table 18. Types of buildings of primary schools (1978)

Type of building	*Number of primary schools*			*Percentage of primary schools*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Open space	39,606	1,124	40,730	9.18	2.61	8.58
Tents	360	196	556	0.08	0.46	0.12
Thatched huts	46,457	1,262	47,719	10.76	2.93	10.05
Kuccha (temporary) buildings	97,744	3,608	101,352	22.65	8.38	21.35
Semi-permanent buildings	55,291	6,127	61,418	12.81	14.24	12.95
Pukka (permanent) buildings	192,144	30,717	222,861	44.52	71.38	46.95
Total :	431,602	43,034	474,636	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978), National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982.

In 1978, 14.18 per cent of the middle schools were housed in unsatisfactory structures (Table 19). Over 15 per cent of middle schools in rural areas and 5.86 per cent in urban areas were being run in unsatisfactory structures comprising thatched huts, tents, kuccha buildings or open space.

Table 19. Types of buildings of middle schools

Types of buildings	*Number of middle schools*			*Percentage of middle schools*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Open space	1,757	53	1,810	1.86	0.29	1.61
Tents	22	44	66	0.02	0.24	0.06
Thatched huts	2,025	202	2,227	2.15	1.10	1.98
Kuccha (temporary) buildings	11,062	769	11,831	11.75	4.23	10.53
Semi-parmanent buildings	15,969	2,030	17,999	16.96	11.14	16.01
Pukka (permanent) buildings	63,345	15,126	78,471	67.26	83.00	69.81
Total :	94,180	18,224	112,404	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Among the states, Manipur had the highest percentage (80.95) of middle schools housed in unsatisfactory structures. Himachal Pradesh (59.12 per cent), Nagaland (70.30 per cent) and Tripura (64.04 per cent) had more than 50 per cent of middle schools housed in unsatisfactory structures. Among Union Territories, Mizoram (79.18 per cent) and Arunachal Pradesh (52.38 per cent) had more than 50 per cent of middle schools run in open spaces, tents, thatched huts and kuccha buildings.

There has been an acute shortage of classroom space both in primary schools and middle schools. As in the case of buildings, the shortages were more acute in rural schools than in urban areas. About 83 per cent of primary schools had a shortage of one to three rooms. About 77 per cent of middle schools had a shortage of one to four rooms. While in rural areas, space was available for expansion of school buildings, schools in urban areas did not have sufficient space for constructing additional classrooms.

Availability of other facilities. Tables 20 to 24 will give a more complete picture of the limited facilities for elementary education. They cover the availability of furniture/mats, blackboards, libraries, drinking water and lavatories.

Table 20. Schools without mats/furniture (1978)

School	*Schools having no mats/furniture*			*Percentage of schools without mats/furniture*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary schools	154,126	7,882	162,008	35.71	18.32	34.13
Middle schools	24,120	2,215	26,335	25.61	12.15	23.43

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982.

Table 21. Schools without adequate number of blackboards (1978)

Schools	*Number of schools without adequate number of blackboards*			*Percentage of schools without adequate number of blackboards*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary Schools	179,095	9,446	188,541	41.50	21.95	39.72
Middle Schools	20,294	1,752	22,046	21.55	9.61	19.61

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Table 22. Schools having library facilities (1978)

School	*Number of schools having library facilities*			*Percentage of schools having library facilities*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary schools	120,943	19,043	139,986	28.02	44.25	29.49
Middle schools	68,897	14,846	83,743	73.15	81.46	74.50

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Table 23. Schools having drinking water facilities within premises (1978)

School	*Number of schools having drinking water facilities*			*Percentage of schools having drinking water facilities*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary schools	163,112	29,124	192,236	37.79	67.67	40.50
Middle schools	59,424	14,935	74,395	63.09	81.95	66.15

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Table 24. Schools having urinals and lavatory (1978)

School	*Number of schools having urinals and lavatory*			*Percentage of schools having urinals and lavatory*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary schools	46,806	23,491	70,297	10.84	54.59	14.81
Middle schools	28,643	13,483	42,126	30.41	73.98	37.40

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Number of teachers in primary and middle schools. The total number of primary and middle school teachers has increased substantially during the past three decades. The number of primary school teachers increased from 537,918 in 1950-1951 to 1,365,431 in 1980-1981 (Table 25).

Table 25. Number of teachers in primary schools in India (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Number of teachers in primary schools*			*Percentage of women teachers*	*Average number of teachers per school*
	Men	*Women*	*Total*		
1950-1951	455,637	82,281	537,918	15.30	2.57
1955-1956	574,182	117,067	691,249	16.94	2.48
1960-1961	614,727	126,788	741,515	17.10	2.24
1965-1966	764,062	180,315	944,377	19.09	2.62
1970-1971	835,340	224,610	1,059,950	21.19	2.60
1975-1976	964,311	283,242	1,247,553	22.70	2.75
1980-1981 (P)	1,001,977	343,399	1,345,376	25.52	2.77
1981-1982 (P)	1,012,660	352,771	1,365,431	25.84	2.76

(P) Provisional

Source: i) *'A handbook of educational allied statistics'*, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India; 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1955-1956, 1960-1961, 1965-1966, 1970-1971, 1975-1976 and 1980-1981).

ii) 'Selected educational statistics, 1981-1982', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1981-1982).

A welcome trend is the increase in the proportion of women teachers. During this period, the percentage of women teachers rose from

15.30 to 25.84. Though there has been a considerable increase in the number of teachers at the primary stage, the average number of teachers per school showed only a very marginal increase, from 2.57 in 1950-1951 to 2.76 in 1981-1982.

The number of teachers at the middle stage increased from 85,496 in 1950-1951 to 846,772 in 1981-1982 (Table 26). During this period, the average number of teachers per middle school increased from 6.29 to 7.08. The percentage of women teachers in middle schools increased from 15.07 to 31.50 during the period 1950-1951 to 1981-1982.

Table 26. Number of teachers in middle schools in India (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Number of teachers in middle schools*			*Percentage of women teachers*	*Average number of teachers per school*
	Men	*Women*	*Total*		
1950-1951	72,609	12,887	85,496	15.07	6.29
1955-1956	90,995	23,844	114,839	20.76	5.28
1960-1961	261,696	83,532	345,228	24.20	6.95
1965-1966	389,225	138,529	527,754	26.25	6.96
1970-1971	463,063	174,506	637,569	27.37	7.04
1975-1976	554,043	223,885	777,928	28.78	7.30
1980-1981 (P)	570,183	260,466	830,649	31.36	7.13
1981-1982 (P)	580,049	266,723	846,772	31.50	7.08

(P) Provisional

Source: i) *A handbook of educational and allied statistics,* Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1955-1956, 1960-1961, 1965-1966, 1970-1971, 1975-1976 and 1980-1981).

ii) 'Selected educational statistics', 1981-1982, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1981-1982).

In spite of the substantial increase in the number of teachers at the primary stage, there still exist a large number of schools without an adequate number of teachers. In 1978, as many as 164,931 primary schools were single teacher schools, constituting 35 per cent of the total number (Table 27). Over 27 per cent were two-teacher schools, 15.10 per cent three-teacher schools and 8.16 per cent four-teacher schools. Over 5 per cent of primary schools had five teachers, while 8.85 per cent had more than five teachers. Sixty-two per cent were without teachers. Zero teacher schools indicate that on the date of the survey, a given school had no teacher, although a position had been sanctioned.

Table 27. Primary schools according to teachers in position (1978)

Number of teachers in position	*Number of primary schools*	*Percentage to total number of primary schools*
Zero	2,937	0.62
One	164,931	34.75
Two	129,451	27.27
Three	71,658	15.10
Four	38,726	8.16
Five	24,908	5.25
More than Five	42,025	8.85
Total :	474,636	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

The percentage of single-teacher primary schools ranged from 0.25 in Delhi – a metropolitan area – to 82.83 in Dadra & Nagar Haveli, a small Union Territory predominantly inhabited by tribal people. Among the states, Jammu & Kashmir had the highest percentage (78.52) of single-teacher schools. Andhra Pradesh (54.27 per cent), Gujarat (56.41 per cent), Karnataka (72.54 per cent), Maharashtra (52.75 per cent), Meghalaya (64.22 per cent) and Rajasthan (57.22 per cent) were the other states where more than 50 per cent of the primary schools had only one teacher in position. Among the Union Territories, Arunachal Pradesh (71.84 per cent) had the highest percentage of single-teacher schools at the primary stage. Assam (28.6 per cent), Bihar (33.5 per cent), Himachal Pradesh (42.4 per cent), Madhya Pradesh (47.0 per cent), Orissa (45.8 per cent), and Tripura (36.8 per cent) also had a large number of single-teacher primary schools in 1978. These single-teacher schools, with children of varying age groups and varying educational attainment, present a number of problems, particularly for teachers in rural primary schools, whose academic backgrounds are generally not as sound as that of their counterparts in urban schools.

'The Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) also made available data on the percentage distribution of primary sections according to number of teachers. It was found that 31.92 per cent of primary sections had only one teacher in position (Table 28). In rural areas, 35.11 per cent of primary sections were single-teacher sections as against 5.78 per cent in urban areas. Of the total number of primary sections in the country, 26.28 per cent were two-teacher sections. The percentages of sections having only two teachers in rural and urban areas were 28.24 and 10.17 respectively. The percentage of primary sections with five or more teachers was 58.10 in the case of urban areas, whereas in the case of rural areas it was only 12.0.

Table 28. Percentage distribution of primary sections according to number of teachers (1978)

Number of teachers in position	*Percentage of primary sections*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*
Zero	0.58	0.12	0.53
One	35.11	5.78	31.92
Two	28.24	10.17	26.28
Three	15.36	11.31	14.92
Four	8.71	14.52	9.34
Five	5.00	14.29	6.01
More than Five	7.00	43.81	11.00
Total :	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Pupil-teacher ratio. Normally, the allotment of teachers in primary schools/sections is based on the enrolment, However, in some cases, there has been a disproportionate distribution of teachers in primary sections. At the time of the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) there were primary sections without a teacher or with one teacher, which had enrolments of 200 or more. At the same time there were also primary sections with five teachers or more with an enrolment of less than 20. There were 1.36 per cent of primary sections with a pupil-teacher ratio below 10. (Table 29).

Table 29. Percentage distribution of primary sections according to pupil-teacher ratio (1978)

Pupil-teacher ratio	*Percentage of primary sections*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*
Below 10	1.36	1.31	1.36
10-19	6.97	6.53	6.92
20-39	52.27	49.63	51.98
40-49	21.54	25.32	21.95
50 and above	17.86	17.21	17.79
Total :	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

In 17.79 per cent of primary sections, the pupil-teacher ratio was 50 or more. The pattern of pupil-teacher ratio was almost the same in rural and urban areas.

Availability of qualified teachers. A major thrust of the effort to improve the quality of education at the elementary stage has been to raise the level of general education and professional training of teachers. Due to the expansion of educational facilities at all levels, a large number of more qualified persons have become teachers at primary and middle stages.

The minimum qualification prescribed for the primary school teacher is matriculation with a teacher training certificate. In 1978, among teachers at the primary stage, 6.3 per cent were graduates and 0.84 per cent were post graduates (Table 30). However, there was also a sizeable proportion of teachers (26.24 per cent) who were under-qualified. While the minimum qualification prescribed for a teacher working at the middle stage is, in some states, matriculation with a teacher training certificate, in others, the qualification prescribed is a bachelor's degree and a degree in education. In 1978 among teachers at the middle stage, 6.14 per cent were postgraduates. However, 9.08 per cent were underqualified.

The number of trained teachers has also been increasing steadily over the years. The percentage of trained teachers in primary schools increased from 58.8 per cent in 1950-1951 to 80.63 per cent in

1970-1971 and to 87.1 in 1981-1982. In the case of middle schools it increased from 53.3 per cent in 1950-1951 to 83.8 per cent in 1970-1971 and to 89.2 in 1981-1982.

Table 30. Percentage of trained teachers in primary and middle schools (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Percentage of trained teachers*	
	Primary schools	*Middle schools*
1950-1951	58.8	53.3
1955-1956	61.2	58.5
1960-1961	64.1	66.5
1965-1966	70.5	76.9
1970-1971	80.6	83.8
1981-1982 (P)	87.1	89.2

(P) Provisional

Source: i) *A handbook of educational and allied statistics*, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1960-1961, 1965-1966, 1970-1971).

ii) 'Selected educational statistics', 1981-1982, Ministry Education and Culture, Government of India; 1983 (for 1981-1982).

There was, however, a wide variation in the availability of trained teachers in the states/UTs in 1981-1982. In 1981-1982, 12.9 per cent of the teachers in primary schools in the country were untrained. Nagaland had the highest percentage (64.0 per cent) of untrained teachers in primary schools. Assam (46.1 per cent), Manipur (32.0 per cent), Meghalaya (46.0 per cent), Sikkim (55.7 per cent), Tripura (38.5 per cent), West Bengal (40.0 per cent) and Mizoram (42.1 per cent) were other states which had a considerable backlog of untrained primary school teachers.

In middle schools, 10.8 per cent of the teachers were untrained in 1981-1982. The highest proportion of untrained teachers in middle schools was in Nagaland (82.0 per cent). In Assam (66.7 per cent), Manipur (64.0 per cent), Meghalaya (75.0 per cent), Sikkim (53.4 per cent), Arunachal Pradesh (56.1 per cent) and Mizoram (63.8 per cent), a large proportion of teachers in middle schools were untrained.

Development and renewal of curriculum

Another aspect of the effort to improve the quality of education at the elementary stage has been the development and renewal of curriculum. The content of syllabi in all subjects has been upgraded. A much larger variety of subjects with more enriching information has been introduced. Each subject has been brought to a higher standard. Simultaneously, textbooks and other teaching-learning materials have been improved in all aspects to match the upgraded content and standard.

The Education Commission (1964-1966) underlined national development as one of the most important concerns of education. It visualized education as the only instrument of peaceful social change on a grand scale. It laid emphasis on the internal transformation of education so as to relate it to the life, needs and aspirations of the people. It stressed the need to provide children with an education which would help them to participate effectively and productively in the on-going process of development.

The report was followed by attempts to develop a corresponding school curriculum which would meet the current and emerging needs of Indian society. In 1973, the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare constituted an expert group to develop a framework for school curriculum. The group made a thorough study of the existing educational practices in the country and held discussions at different levels involving experts from various fields. The expert group proposed a framework for development of curricula at the primary, middle and secondary stages of education in the country. 'The curriculum for the ten-year school – a framework' was brought out by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in the year 1975.

The framework stressed the need to develop a curriculum which was socially and personally relevant and emphasized flexibility within a framework of acceptable principles and values in order to make the curriculum in tune with the rapidly expanding frontiers of knowledge in science and technology and changing socio-economic conditions. It envisaged the study of science and mathematics as an integral part of school education up to Class X, in order to give children modern knowledge, develop their curiosity, teach them the scientific method of inquiry and prepare them for effective participation in a changing society and culture, increasingly dependent on a rational outlook and requiring better utilization of science and technology. Work experience as a source of learning at all levels of school education was also emphasized. The need to formulate a curriculum which would facilitate the awakening of social consciousness, the development of democratic values and a feeling of social justice and national integration was also highlighted.

The framework brought into focus the need to provide children with opportunities of artistic experience and expression in order to preserve and develop their talents. It recommended that the curriculum should provide adequate time for physical education and should have a core centring on character building and human values. Due emphasis was laid upon the process of learning, particularly self-learning or learning to learn at every stage of school education. Emphasis was also laid on language learning and the mother tongue was recommended as the medium of instruction at the primary stage.

The framework laid down separate objectives of education at the primary and middle stages. In regard to primary education it observed that:

> . . . the child's spontaneity, curiosity, creativity and activity, in general, should not be restricted by a rigid and unattractive method of teaching and environment for learning. The curriculum should take into consideration the social, intellectual, emotional and physical maturity of the child as well as the socio-economic needs of the community. It will be helpful to identify realistically the basic minimum to be achieved in respect of each and every child and leave enough scope for individual schools to go as far beyond this basic minimum as their circumstances permit. There should be enough scope for flexibility and local adjustments.

The specific objectives of education at the primary stage were defined as follows:

i) The first objective is literacy. The child should learn the first language, which would generally be his mother tongue, to a level where he can communicate easily with others through properly articulated speech and in writing.

ii) The second objective is attainment of numeracy. The child should develop facility in the four fundamental numerical operations and be able to apply these in the life of the community to solve practical problems.

iii) The third objective is 'techniracy'. The child should learn the method of inquiry in science and should begin to appreciate science and technology in the life and world around him/her.

iv) The child should develop a respect for national symbols, like the flag and the anthem, and for the democratic processes and institutions of the country. He should know about the composite and plural culture of India and learn to denigrate untouchability, casteism and communalism.

v) The child should acquire healthy attitudes towards human labour and its dignity.

vi) The child should develop habits of cleanliness and healthful living and an understanding of the proper sanitation and hygiene of his neighbourhood.

vii) The child should acquire a taste for the good and the beautiful and should take care of his surroundings.

viii) The child should learn to co-operate with others and appreciate the usefulness of working together for the common good. Other desirable qualities of character and personality such as initiative, leadership, kindness, honesty, should also be developed as well as an understanding of his role as an individual in the home, the school and the neighbourhood.

ix) The child should be able to express himself freely in creative activities and should acquire habits of self-learning.

As regards the middle school stage, the frame-work recognized that:

> during these years, the children become adolescent and this period can become difficult for many children. Problems of adjustment in the family, the school and the society begin to appear. The child, however, becomes a boy or girl with greater intellectual, emotional, social and

> physical maturity than the primary school child. Social demands and responsibilities begin to appear. For many boys and girls, this stage is terminal, after which they enter life and work. They should, therefore, be prepared adequately to face life and develop capacities and attitudes for productive work in which they have to participate.

The framework emphasized national integration as an important aim of education. Social sciences were expected to play a significant role in promoting this. It stated that in the matter of national integration, children at the middle stage should develop an understanding based on knowledge, through a proper study of history, geography and other subjects. It highlighted the study of the Indian Constitution and the values it enshrines, as well as the democratic process, structures and institutions of the country. The framework also pointed out that children's understanding should be deepened and widened by their knowledge of world culture and civilization.

As regards language learning, the framework observed that the middle stage,

> is the stage when a second language should be learned so that the child is prepared for wider participation in society and the nation. The child should begin to comprehend ordinary speech in that language as well as simple pieces of writing in prose and poetry. Its mastery of the first language, however, should now be greater and the child should begin to appreciate its literature.

The framework stated that 'in the sciences, physical and life sciences should be introduced. At the same time, environmental education, nutrition, health and population education should receive adequate attention so that science is related meaningfully to life'. It also pointed out that during the middle stage 'work experience should emphasise agricultural and technological processes and tools to help the integration of science, mathematics and technology with production and with the life of the community'.

Education, particularly school education, is primarily the concern of the states/UTs. They have complete autonomy in taking decisions about the curriculum syllabus and textbooks. There is, therefore, a good deal of variation, in the syllabi prescribed by the

Education Departments in the states/UTs. However, the curriculum proposed by NCERT in 1975, has tended to bring about a much needed uniformity.

The framework had stressed the necessity to introduce flexibility in the organization of school work and school hours. However, the following scheme of areas of school work and allocation of time were indicated in the framework.

Primary stage (Classes I-V)

Subjects/area of school work	*Percentage of total time allotted*	
	Classes I-II	*Classes III-V*
First language	25	25
Mathematics	10	15
Environmental studies (social studies and general science)	15	20
Work experience and the arts	25	20
Health education and games	25	20
Total :	100	100

Middle stage (Classes V-VIII)

The framework proposed that a middle school should work for six days in the week, consisting of 48 periods, each of 30-40 minutes duration. The instructional periods were distributed as follows:

Subjects/area of school work	*Hours per week*
First language	8
Second language	5
Mathematics	7
Sciences (life sciences and physical sciences)	7
Social sciences (history, geography, civics and economics)	6
Arts	4
Work experience	5
Physical education, health education and games	6
Total	48

In June 1977, the Ministry of Education appointed a Review Committee to assess and re-examine the objectives and scheme of studies, including the syllabi and textbooks developed on the basis of the 'Curriculum for the ten year school – a framework'. Having reviewed the objectives and structure of school education, the Committee stressed that, 'education must be organized as a learning system to take the individual and society progressively towards higher reaches of human thought and behaviour'. It emphasized that the 'content of learning must also be flexible and arranged so as to suit the needs of individual learners or groups of learners. The curriculum too must be capable of catering to the requirements of a wide range of learners and learning circumstances'. It also suggested that the curriculum should be built around local situations while providing for a core of basic content for uniformity of educational attainment and the acquisition of further skills and knowledge. The Review Committee recommended that socially useful productive work 'should be given a central place in the curriculum at all stages of school education and the content of the academic subjects should be related to it as far as possible'.

The Review Committee recognized that the elementary stage, ending at Class VIII, was the terminal stage of formal education for the great majority of children in the country and recommended that 'a general broad-based education be provided up to the end of the stage of compulsory education'. The specific objectives of education at the elementary stage (Classes I-VIII) formulated by the Review Committee are as follows:

a) Acquisition of tools of formal learning, namely, literacy, numeracy and manual skills;

b) Acquisition of knowledge through observation, study and experimentation in the areas of social and natural sciences;

c) Development of physical strength and team spirit through sports and games;

d) Acquisition of skills for planning and executing socially useful productive work with a view to making education work-based;

e) Acquisition of skills of purposeful observation;

f) Acquisition of habits of co-operative behaviour within the family, school and community;

g) Development of aesthetic perception and creativity through participation in artistic activities and observation of nature;

h) Development of social responsibility by inculcating habits (individually as well as collectively) of appreciation of the culture and life styles of persons of other religions, regions and countries and readiness to serve the weaker and the deprived; and

i) Development of the desire to participate in productive and other processes of community life and to serve the community.

The Review Committee also made certain recommendations regarding the structure, curriculum pattern and time allocation for the different sub-stages of school education which were considered illustrative and which might apply in general throughout the country. The recommendations in regard to the elementary stage of education were as follows:

Primary stage (Classes I-IV/V)

Subjects	*Percentage of total time allocated*
One language (Mother Tongue)	20
Mathematics	20
Environmental Studies (Social Studies, Nature Study and Health Education)	20
Socially Useful Productive Work	20
Games, and Creative Activities such as Music, Dancing and Painting.	20
Total :	100 hours

Middle stage (Classes V/VI-VII/VIII)

Subjects	*Time allotted in hours per week*
Languages (Mother tongue/regional language and official or the associate official language of the Union)	7
History, civics and geography	4
Science – an integrated course	4
The arts (music, dancing, painting)	3
Socially useful productive work and community service	6
Games, physical education and supervised study.	4
Total :	28 hours

As regards learning of languages, the Review Committee felt that the recommendations of the Education Commission (1964-1966) should be the basis for the formulation or reformulation of any policy. The Education Commission had recommended a three language formula at the school stage to include; (a) the mother tongue or the regional language; (b) the official language of the Union or the associate official language of the Union so long as it exists; and (c) a modern Indian or foreign language not covered under (a) and (b) and other than that used as the medium of instruction.

The Education Commission had recommended that at the primary stage (Classes I-V) 'only one language should be studied compulsorily – the mother tongue or the regional language, at the option of the pupil'. It was recommended that at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII):

> only two languages should be studied on a compulsory basis: (i) the mother tongue or the regional language; and (ii) the official or the associate official language of the Union . . . In addition, facilities should be provided for the study of a third language on an optional basis, so that the children in Hindi areas whose mother tongue is not Hindi and the children in non-Hindi areas who have taken English as the second language may study the official language of the Union, if they do so desire.

The Review Committee observed that the scheme of studies recommended for Classes I-VIII was only illustrative and the Education Departments in different states/UTs in the country might decide to make some subjects compulsory and other electives if they so desired. The basic characteristics and objectives of curriculum for school education have also been further spelt out in the Sixth Five Year Plan document. According to it:

> the curriculum would be developed with the goal of imparting necessary levels of literacy, numeracy, comprehension and functional skills related to local socio-economic factors and environment needs. It would suit flexible models, with provision of diversification and dextrous balance between a common basic goal and varying methodology. The basic objectives would stress curriculum as an instrument for inculcating humanistic values, capacity for tolerance, promotion of national integration, scientific attitudes and the temper and individual capability for learning from the surrounding world.

Today in India, the guidelines provided in 'The curriculum for the ten-year school – a framework' and the 'Report of the Review Committee on the curriculum for the ten-year school' form the basis for the development of curricula for school education at different levels in the states and Union Territories in the country.

Efforts have been made to upgrade the content of the syllabi in all subjects. Textbooks and other teaching-learning materials have been improved in all aspects to match the upgraded content and standard. These reforms along with efforts to improve the level of general education and professional training of teachers, have contributed considerably to the improvement of instruction.

Expenditure on elementary education

The outlays for elementary education have increased substantially in successive Five Year Plans. The total outlay for elementary education increased from Rs 930 million in the First Five Year Plan (1951-1956) to Rs 9050 million in the Sixth Five Year Plan. The Plan expenditure on elementary education increased from Rs 850 million during the Fifth Plan period to Rs 3170 million during the Fifth Five Year Plan period (Table 31).

Although the outlay for elementary education has increased substantially, its share in the total outlay for education varied from Plan to Plan. While in the case of the First Five Year Plan it represented 55 per cent of the total outlay for education, in the Sixth Five Year Plan the share of elementary education decreased to 35.9 per cent. The Plan expenditure also showed a downward trend during this period. The percentage of expenditure on elementary education decreased from 56 per cent in the First Five Year Plan to 35 per cent in the Fifth Five Year Plan.

Table 31. Plan outlay and expenditure on elementary education

Plan	*Outlay*		*Expenditure*	
	Education (Total)	*Elementary education*	*Education*	*Elementary education*
First Five Year Plan	169	93 (55)	153	85 (56)
Second Five Year Plan	277	93 (34)	273	95 (35)
Third Five Year Plan	560	209 (37)	589	201 (34)
Fourth Five Year Plan	822	256 (31)	786	239 (30)
Fifth Five Year Plan	1,285	410 (32)	912	317 (35)
Sixth Five Year Plan	2,524	905 (36)	–	–

Source: *A handbook, of educational and allied statistics.* Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983.

The pattern of distribution of plan and non-plan expenditure on elementary education in states and Union Territories has also shown variations in different years (Table 32). The proportion of plan expenditure on elementary education incurred by states/UTs increased from 29.9 per cent in 1968-1969, which was the final year of the Fourth Five Year Plan period. In the Fifth Five Year Plan period (1974-1979), the percentage of plan expenditure on elementary education to total plan expenditure on education decreased from 44.7 per cent in 1974-1975 to 42.1 in 1978-1979. The non-plan expenditure, which is spent to maintain the existing infrastructure (mostly on salaries of teachers and other staff) in the state sector constituted 47.2 per cent in 1968-1969. It increased to 48.7 per cent in 1978-1979. The proportion of expenditure on elementary education to total expenditure in the central and state sectors increased from 42.2 per cent in 1968-1969 to 44.3 per cent in 1978-1979.

In the states and UTs the largest share of educational expenditure has been on elementary education. Of the total expenditure on education incurred in the states, the proportion spent (plan and non-plan) on elementary education increased from 46.2 per cent in 1969-1970 to 47.2 per cent in 1973-1974. However, in the Fifth Five Year Plan period, the proportion of expenditure on elementary education decreased from 49.5 per cent in 1974-1975 to 47.9 per cent in 1978-1979. However, the position was not uniform in all the states/UTs. The percentages of expenditure (plan and non-plan) on elementary education to total expenditure on education in 1978-1979 were more than 50 per cent in Bihar (61.2), Nagaland (59.2), Kerala (56.3), Gujarat (55.4), Karnataka (55.0), Rajasthan (54.8) and Uttar Pradesh (52.5), while in other states it was less than 50 per cent.

Table 32. Percentage of expenditure on elementary education to total expenditure on education (revenue account)

(Expenditure in millions)

Year	*Plan*		*Non-Plan*		*Total*	
	States/UTs	*Total*	*States/UTs*	*Total*	*States/UTs*	*Total*
1968-1969	29.9	22.1	47.2	45.5	45.3	42.2
1969-1970	32.9	20.1	47.1	45.3	46.2	42.8
1970-1971	34.7	22.6	45.8	44.0	44.9	41.6
1971-1972	33.5	24.1	46.0	44.3	44.7	41.4
1972-1973	40.4	29.3	48.8	47.0	47.7	44.0
1973-1974	41.5	34.6	48.5	46.8	47.2	44.3
1974-1975	44.7	32.4	49.8	47.4	49.5	46.3
1975-1976	42.7	30.9	50.2	47.9	49.6	46.2
1976-1977	43.3	31.4	49.3	47.0	48.8	45.3
1977-1978	42.6	32.8	49.1	46.9	48.4	45.1
1978-1979	42.1	31.9	48.7	46.5	47.9	44.3

Source: 'Trends of expenditure on education', 1968-1969 to 1978-1979, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1980.

There has been a disturbing trend in the proportion of expenditure on different items. The proportion of expenditure on teachers' salary has increased at the cost of other items. For instance, between 1951 and 1958, the percentage of recurring expenditure on items other than salaries decreased in the case of primary schools from 26.9 to 14.7 and in the case of middle schools from 27.7 to 18.1. In 1973, the percentage had gone down to 6.6 in the case of primary schools and 8.6 in the case of middle schools.

The public expenditure on primary education in 1978-1979 was of the order of Rs. 6526.8 million. Its breakdown into current and capital costs was as below:

Table 33. Expenditure on primary education (1970-1979)

Item	*Expenditure (millions)*	*Percentage to total*
Current expenditure		
Teachers salary	6,218.14	95.3
Administration and supervision	121.31	1.9
Other	73.42	1.1
Capital expenditure	113.93	1.7
Total	6,526.80	100.0

Thus, in 1978-1979, teachers' salaries constituted 95.3 per cent of the total expenditure on primary education. This shows that the bulk of the expenditure on elementary education is accounted for by teacher costs, with hardly any resources being devoted to such essential items as replacement of equipment, purchase of library books, and contingencies. This trend has serious implications for the quality of elementary education.

The per capita expenditure on education remains fairly low. In 1981-1982, the per capita budgeted expenditure for the country as a whole was Rs 57.7. Among the states, it varied between Rs 399.4 in Lakshadweep to Rs 35.4 in Uttar Pradesh. The percentage of budgeted expenditure on education to total revenue budget in the country as a whole was 24.5 in 1981-1982.

Chapter Three

STRATEGIES FOR UNIVERSALIZATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The provision of universal elementary education continues to be one of the main objectives of educational development in India. The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985) envisages a balanced strategy of educational development 'to ensure essential minimum education to all children up to the age of 14 years' by the year 1989-1990. Elementary education, as one of the major components of the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) has been accorded highest priority in the Sixth Plan.

The importance of universalization of elementary education has been further reinforced in the new 20-Point Programme announced by the Prime Minister of India on January 14, 1982.

The programme forms an integral part of the Sixth Five Year Plan and focuses attention on certain high priority areas of national development. It seeks to impart greater dynamism to the implementation of some of the crucial social and economic programmes. Point 16 of the new 20-Point Programme highlights the national commitment to 'Spread universal education for the age group 6-14 with special emphasis on girls and simultaenously involve students and voluntary agencies in programmes for the removal of adult illiteracy'.

Strategies envisaged and adopted for universalization of elementary education

The Sixth Five Year Plan envisages a two-pronged attack for increasing enrolment and reducing the drop-out rate at the elementary stage of education. The strategies for universalization of elementary education, given a result-oriented perspective by the New 20-Point Programme, include intensified use of existing facilities, including adjustment of schooling hours according to local conditions, provision of new facilities which would be economically viable and educationally relevant and promotion of a non-formal system of learning. The present strategy is target group oriented because out-of-school children are mostly from the weaker sections of the society, or girls.

Part-time short duration classes for children who cannot, for various reasons, attend full-time regular schools have been advocated as an alternative to the formal system of education. As a major strategy to provide education to out-of-school children who for various socio-economic reasons fail to take advantage of the full-time schooling facilities, adoption of a large scale programme of part-time education was emphasized by the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) in 1974. The Board observed that 'the goal of universal aducation cannot be realized through an exclusive reliance on the formal system of education with its single point entry, sequential character and full-time professional teachers'. It, therefore, recommended that 'a radical reconstruction of the existing system should be carried out through the adoption of a multiple entry system and a large scale programme of part-time education for those children who cannot attend schools, for some reason or the other on a whole time basis'.

In accordance with this recommendation, part-time education was emphasized for the first time in the Draft Fifth Plan (1974-1979). Part-time classes were proposed for those children who, having completed five years of primary school would also like to continue education on a part-time basis, and literacy classes for those who had either never been to school or had dropped out at the early stage of primary education.

Part-time education as a major strategy to bring out-of-school children within the fold of education was also emphasized by the Working Group on Universalization of Elementary Education set up by the Ministry of Education. While formulating the basic strategy for universalization of elementary education, the Working Group in its 1978 interim report recommended:

> At present our motto is: either full-time education or on education at all. This does not suit the hard realities of the life because most children (about 70 per cent of the total) have to work in or outside the family and are, therefore, compelled to drop-out on the ground that they

> cannot attend on a whole time basis. They could receive education on part-time basis but our system does not provide such education. We propose a major change in this policy in recommending a new motto: Every child shall continue to learn in the age group 6-14, on a full time basis, if possible and on a part-time basis if necessary". The Working Group also observed that "The goal of universal elementary education can and should be achieved through full-time schooling and part-time education: but either should be done without sacrificing the basic minimum knowledge of literacy, numeracy and inculcation of the social and civic responsibilities and in both these options the content of education should be meaningful and relevant to the socio-economic milieu and needs. Content of either channel should be such as it does not thwart the scope of vertical mobility.

Following the recommendations of the Working Group, non-formal part-time education is being developed in a big way as an alternative, supportive system to formal schooling. Under this programme, out-of-school children, who cannot join and attend formal schools because of certain socio-economic constraints, are offered elementary education of an equivalent standard at places and times suited to their needs and convenience. The major thrust of the non-formal education programme is in nine states – Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, which among them hold about 75 per cent of the non-enrolled children in the country.

Enrolment targets

An analysis of enrolment at the primary and middle stages in 1979-1980, which was the base year of the Sixth Five Year Plan indicated that while many states/Union Territories had reached 100 per cent enrolment of boys at the primary stage, some lagged behind in respect of boys and many in the case of girls. In the case of enrolment at the middle stage, the progress of both boys and girls, was more uneven. Therefore, while the main objective of educational development in the Sixth Five Year Plan continues to be universalization of elementary education, it is proposed that the goal should be reached in two stages. In the first stage, universalization will be achieved in primary education by 1984-1985, in those states/

UTs which are yet to universalize it. In the second stage, that is by 1989-1990, all children of the 11-14 age group will be enrolled in crease in the enrolment of children at the middle stage would be attempted so that by the end of Seventh Five Year Plan the Constitutional Directive is finally realized. Enrolment targets have been fixed for each state/UT with this perspective in view.

During the Sixth Five Year Plan, the enrolment in Classes I to V is expected to be increased from 70,940 million in 1979-1980 to 82,633 million in 1984-1985, from 43,662 million to 48,457 for boys and from 27,278 million to 34,176 million in the case of girls. Thus, additional enrolment expected at the primary stage during the Sixth Five Year Plan is about 11,693 million (4,795 million for boys and 6.898 million in the case of girls). The enrolment at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII) in 1984-1985 is expected to be 25,835 million. The additional enrolment expected at the middle stage is 7,134 million consisting of about 4,077 million boys and 3,057 million girls (Table 34)

Taking the two age groups of 6-11 and 11-14 together, a target of about 18,827 million has been laid down, 11.693 million in Classes I-V and 7,134 million in classes VI-VIII. In the context of the population projection worked out on the basis of the 1971 Census, the percentage of children enrolled in Classes I-V to population in the age group 6-11 is expected to be raised from 81.9 per cent in 1979-1980 to 95.2 per cent in 1984-1985. A gross enrolment ratio of over 100 per cent at the primary stage would be obtained in the case of Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Punjab Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, A & N Islands, Chandigarh, Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Delhi, Goa, Daman and Diu, Mizoram and Pondicherry. In Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal and Arunachal Pradesh, the gross enrolment ratios will be over 90 per cent. In all states/UTs except Haryana, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, the gross enrolment ratio for boys in Classes I-V will be over 100 per cent. As for girls the enrolment ratio for age group 6-11 is expected to be raised from 64.9 per cent in 1979-1980 to 81.5 per cent by the end of Sixth Five Year Plan. By the end of 1984-1985, it is expected to be over 100 per cent in Gujarat, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Punjab, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, A&N Islands, Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Delhi, Goa, Daman and Diu, Lakshadweep and Pondicherry.

Table 34. Additional enrolment targets for the Sixth Five Year Plan and Achievement During 1980-1983 (Classes I-V and VI-VIII)

Year	*Additional Enrolment (in millions)*					
	Classes I-V			*Classes VI-VIII*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1980-1985 (Sixth Five Year Plan Target)	4.795	6.898	11.693	4.077	3.057	7.134
1980-1981 (Achievement)	0.914	0.834	1.748	0.730	0.415	1.145
1981-1982 (Achievement)	0.400	0.475	0.875	0.693	0.516	1.209
1982-1983 (Likely Achievement)	1.263	1.039	2.302	1.031	0.737	1.768
1983-1984 (Target)	1.461	1.801	3.262	1.269	0.621	1.890

Source: i) 'Analysis of Annual Plan for Education (1983-1984)', Planning Commission, Government of India, 1983 (for 1980-1985, 1982-1983 & 1983-1984).

ii) Figures for 1980-1981 and 1981-1982 are calculated on the basis of data on enrolment given in 'Selected educational statistics', 1980-1981 and 1981-1982, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India.

The enrolment in classes VI-VIII is expected to be increased from 38.4 per cent of the population in the age group 11-14 in 1979-1980 to 50.3 per cent in 1984-1985. During the same period the enrolment ratio of boys in classes VI-VIII is expected to be raised from 50.1 per cent in 1979-1980 to 63.1 per cent in 1984-1985 and of the girls from 26.0 per cent to 36.8 per cent. Nagaland and the Union Territories of A&N Islands, Goa, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep, Mizoram and Pondicherry are expected to have a gross enrolment ratio of over 100 per cent at the middle stage while it is expected to be over 80 per cent in the case of Himachal Pradesh, Kerala, Punjab, Chandigarh and Delhi and over 60 per cent in Jammu & Kashmir, Manipur, Meghalaya, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu and Dadra and Nagar Haveli.

Physical targets achieved during 1980-1983. An appraisal of the implementation of different components of universalization of elementary education since the commencement of the Sixth Five

Year Plan indicates that in the first year of the Plan (1980-1981), average annual additional enrolment in Classes I-V was of the order of about 1.748 million (0.914 million boys and 0.834 million girls). At the middle stage (classes VI-VIII) the additional enrolment during 1980-1981 was about 1.145 million (0.730 million boys and 0.415 million girls). In 1981-1982, the additional enrolment in Classes I-V was of the order of about 0.085 million (0.400 million boys and 0.475 million girls). In Classes VI-VIII the additional enrolment during 1981-1982 was about 1.204 million (0.693 million boys and 0.516 million girls). The additional enrolment targets for 1980-1985 and achievements during 1981-1983 and the targets for 1983-1984 are indicated in Table 3.2.

It is expected that an additional enrolment of about 5.0 million will be achieved in the final year of the plan period, thereby making a total achievement of more than 19.0 million, which exceeds the targets envisaged under the Sixth Five Year Plan.

Though the additional enrolment targets for the 6-14 age group in Classes I-VIII in formal schools are likely to be achieved in the Sixth Five Year Plan, it looks doubtful whether the additional enrolment coverage of 6 million envisaged under the non-formal education programme will be achieved. The likely achievement under this programme may be of the order of about 4.5 million during the period of the Sixth Plan. Therefore, according to the present assessment, total enrolment in Classes I-VIII (6-14 age group) both under the formal and non-formal system, is expected to be of the order of 113.0 million by the end of the Sixth Five Year Plan period. The estimated population in the age group 6-14 in 1984-1985, on the basis of the 1981 Census, is of the order of 148.0 million. Thus, there will be a backlog of about 35 million non-attending children in this age group in 1984-1985.

Table 35. Achievement and targets of enrolment at elementary stage (Classes I-V and VI-VIII) during 1979-1980 & 1980-1985

Year	*Enrolment (in millions)*					
	Classes I-V			*Classes VI-VIII*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1979-1980 (Base year of Sixth Five Year Plan)	43.662	27.278	70.940	12.548	6.153	18.701
1984-1985 (Sixth Five Year Plan Targets)	48.457	34.176	82.633	16.625	9.210	25.835
1980-1981 (Achievement)	44.576	28.112	72.688	13.278	6.568	19.846
1981-1982 (Achievement)	44.976	28.587	73.563	13.971	7.084	21.005
1982-1983 (Likely achievement)	47.177	30.158	77.335	15.468	8.120	23.588
1983-1984 (Target)	48.637	31.960	80.597	16.737	8.741	25.478

Source: i) 'Selected educational statistics', 1979-1980, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1981 (for 1979-1980).

ii) 'Selected educational statistics', 1980-1981, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1982 (for 1980-1981).

iii) 'Selected educational statistics', 1981-1982, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India; 1983, (for 1981-1982).

iv) 'Analysis of annual plan for education (1983-1984)', Planning Commission, Government of India; 1983 (for 1982-1983, 1983-1984 and 1984-1985).

Measures envisaged and undertaken

Comprehensive measures have been envisaged and undertaken to realize the goal of universalization of elementary education by 1990. These measures are intended to overcome the deficiencies in the system as well as to meet the socio-economic complexities and constraints which have prevented the realization of the goal of universal elementary education. Some of these measures are discussed in the following sections.

Optimum and effective utilization of existing facilities. It was pointed out earlier that some primary and middle schools have not been found to be economically or academically viable due to low enrolment. The sparseness of the population of the rural habitations has been one of the reasons for the low enrolment in schools in rural areas. The other is the low utilization of the facilities already available. To increase the economic and academic viability of some of the existing primary and middle schools and to optimize benefits from existing investments, several measures have been initiated in some of the states and Union Territories. Adjustment of school hours according to local conditions, introduction of shorter instructional hours and double shifts, recruitment of teachers on the basis of actual attendance, increasing the number of pupils per teacher at the primary level wherever it is less than 40 pupils per teacher and deployment of surplus teachers to new schools or in the existing single teacher schools are some of these measures. In the case of schools with adequate enrolment, efforts are made to convert single-teacher schools wherever possible into two-teacher schools or to provide an additional teacher as a leave reserve in a cluster of three or four single teacher schools in neighbouring habitations. In certain cases attempts are made to make single teacher schools part of a complex of neighbouring primary or middle schools.

Provision of adequate and appropriate inputs. Availability of a primary school/section within a walking distance of one kilometre and a middle school section within a distance of three kilometres from the residence of children has been accepted as the norm for guiding the establishment of educational facilities. Efforts are being made to provide all habitations which have a population of 300 or more with a primary school within a distance of one kilometre. Similarly efforts are afoot to provide habitations which have a population of 500 or more with a middle school facility either within the habitation or at a maximum distance of three kilometres from the residence of children, during the Sixth Five Year Plan period.

Unsatisfactory primary and middle school structures have contributed to the low attraction and retention rates of schools. The cost of converting existing unsatisfactory primary and middle school structures into economical but durable school buildings is estimated to be about Rs. 19,200 million. Since Plan resources alone would not be adequate to allow construction of such a large number of school buildings, efforts are being made to find alternate sources of finance, including institutional finance, for constructing satisfactory primary and middle schools. This would involve construction of about 1.61 million classrooms. Attempts have been made to lower construction cost by increasing the use of locally available building materials and functionally suitable designs. Construction of school buildings in the rural areas is being taken up as a part of the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP). Community resources are also mobilized for improving physical facilities in the schools, as well as for construction, maintenance, and provision of furniture and equipment. The possibility of levying a tax for construction of school buildings is also being explored in some states and Union Territories.

One of the causes of the low attraction and retention of the schools in rural areas has been lack of an adequate number of teachers in these schools. One reason for the low number of teachers in some of the primary and middle schools in rural areas has been the non-availability of qualified and trained local teachers and the unwillingness of teachers from outside to work in far-flung areas. To overcome this problem, measures have been initiated to recruit teachers for appointment in primary schools from among the local population, while simultaneously taking such measures as are needed to increase their educational qualifications and teaching competence.

Adoption of "No Detention Policy". Frustration due to failures in examinations and detention of children in various classes at the primary and middle stages have contributed to drop-outs. Therefore, as a measure to combat the drop-out problem, a no detention policy has been recommended at the primary stage, so that every child enrolled at this stage is promoted to the next higher class till he/she completes Class V. Adequate safeguards for maintaining standards, i.e. periodical assessment and evaluation are built into the programme. The policy has already been introduced with advantage in a number of states and Union Territories. In some states the no detention policy has been introduced for Classes I to III and a minimum number of students are detained in subsequent higher classes. Some states have introduced the no detention policy up to Class IV, some up to Class V or up to Class VI, and some till the end of the elementary stage. Some states/UTs have yet to introduce this policy. It is expected that the introduction of the non-detention policy will eliminate stagnation and help in bringing down considerably the drop-out rates at the primary stage.

Development of an ungraded school system. The problem of drop-out is also being tackled through the introduction of an ungraded school system, particularly at the primary stage. At present experimental projects on ungraded school systems are being carried out in some states and Union Territories. Normally, Class I and II or Classes I to III or even Classes I to IV or V are fused into one class and the child is allowed to progress according to his/her own ability and speed. The learners are also given self-learning materials for study. After a lesson (unit) is mastered, another lesson is given immediately in order to maintain continuity in learning. Gifted children and fast learners are allowed to progress according to their own pace and they are provided with enrichment materials to broaden their learning, while slow learners are given special attention and encouragement to overcome their deficiencies.

In ungraded schools, there are no annual examinations and detention. A child is allowed to continue studying irrespective of his/her performance. Thus, children experience neither any fear of examinations nor frustration due to failures and detention: However, there is provision for continuous self-evaluation by pupils themselves. After learning a lesson, the pupil evaluates his/her performance and he/she is made to correct mistakes. The teacher assists pupils as and when such assistance is required. The learning materials are developed by teachers and experts. Generally, a course of study is divided into convenient units of 30 to 40 self-learning lessons which are presented sequentially and opportunity is given to repeat the lesson, if necessary.

The experimental projects on ungraded schools have shown encouraging results in terms of reduction of the drop-out rate and stagnation. The experiment, therefore, is proposed to be introduced on a wider scale in other states and Union Territories in the country.

Provision for multi-point entry. Existing formal schooling is sequential and fulltime, with a single-point entry system of institutionalized instruction. Ordinarily a child enters the elementary education system in Class I, is expected to complete one class every year and to rise to the next higher class after passing the annual examination. This system tends to alienate a large number of children, especially those from the disadvantaged populations who cannot cope with full-time instruction or continue to attend school due to socio-economic reasons. Therefore, there is a suggestion to do away with the rigidity of single-point entry and provide opportunities for multiple-entry into any class at the elementary stage. This would help make the system more flexible and also enable children to change their channels of education from full-time to part-time and vice-versa according to their needs and convenience.

In 14 states/UTs, facilities for multi-point entry either at the primary stage or at the entire elementary stage have been provided. In Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, multi-point entry is provided to learners from the non-formal education system. Himachal Pradesh and Chandigarh provide multi-point entry for drop-outs on the basis of terminal examinations. A strong recommendation has been made to the states to introduce multi-point entry at any class of the elementary stage, if necessary, on the basis of entrance tests.

Increasing coverage of incentive scheme. As a measure to increase enrolment and reduce drop-out rates at the elementary stage, the Sixth Five Year Plan envisages extending the coverage of various incentive schemes for children, particularly for those from the disadvantaged sections of the population including Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The mid-day meals scheme during the Sixth Plan period is expected to cover 72.63 million including 9.91 million children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Some states have already taken vigorous steps to extend the coverage of primary school children under this programme as part of their strategy for enhancing enrolment and retention of children. The nutritious meal scheme in Tamil Nadu and the feeding programme in Andhra Pradesh represent a concerted effort in this direction.

The expected coverage for supply of free uniforms/clothes to students during the period 1980-1985 is 5.4 million, including 3.6 million SC/ST children. A total of 68.73 million children including 15.38 million children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Tribes communities are expected to be provided free textbooks and stationery during the Sixth Plan.

Measures for enhancing enrolment and retention of girls. As indicated earlier, the Sixth Five Year Plan recommended the target group approach for achieving universalization of elementary education. Girls represent one of the important target groups and special emphasis is being given to enrolment and retention of girls.

Since 1982, a national campaign for universalization of elementary education has been organized all over the country. It has helped in focusing attention on important aspects of the programme and creation of a climate necessary for a concerted effort. The major thrust of the campaign includes a drive to increase enrolment of girls in particular. To give recognition for excellence in performance for the spread of education among girls, a scheme of incentives/awards has been formulated. It is proposed, to give awards to Panchayats (village councils), blocks and districts for outstanding performance in girls education. Awards also are proposed for the 50 tribal blocks which show the highest increases in girls enrolment. In addition, awards to the best three states/UTs are also proposed separately for enrolment in non-formal education centres and for all-round performance in promoting girls education at the elementary stage.

One of the factors hindering the enrolment of girls has been the lack of an adequate number of women teachers, particularly in rural areas. It has, therefore, been proposed to recruit and train educationally qualified girls from localities where the demand for women teachers exist. To start with, a scheme of central support for recruitment and training of women teachers for primary schools in the nine states where enrolment of girls is quite low, has been drawn up. Under the scheme, it is proposed to recruit, appoint, and train teachers, and to pay them during the training period. The payment of salary would continue until 1989-1990 with central funds in a phased programme. By 1989-1990, about 26,000 women teachers are expected to be appointed under the scheme.

Another measure to promote girls' education is the increase of attendance scholarships to girls. The coverage of this scheme during the Sixth Five Year Plan period is expected to be increased to 6.0 million, including 5.02 million SC/ST children.

In view of the fact that girls constitute about 70 per cent of non-enrolled children, it has been envisaged to establish non-formal education centres exclusively for girls, with substantial central assistance for such centres. A scheme under which 90 per cent central assistance will be given to states for non-formal education centres established exclusively for girls, both at the primary and middle stages, has been initiated by the Ministry of Education. In order to encourage full participation of the states in this effort, the contribution of the state government has been kept at only 10 per cent.

While the schemes of exclusive non-formal education centres for girls and recruitment and training of women teachers provide the strategy for increasing enrolment of girls, to ensure the efficiency of the strategy, the provision of working women's hostels in rural areas is considered essential. For the basic services in the rural areas under the Health, Social Welfare and Education sectors, a number of women functionaries are being provided in rural areas. Linkages between these sectors at the grass-roots level is considered beneficial from the point of view of girls' education. It is expected that the establishment of working women's hostels for all women functionaries in rural areas will help in inter-sectoral linkages of the basic services leading to improvement in quality of life, particularly in the case of girls and women. It is, therefore, proposed to initiate a scheme for construction of hostels/residential facilities for the benefit of women teachers in rural areas.

Educational opportunities for disadvantaged population groups. The strategies adopted for universal elementary education envisage concentrated efforts in the backward areas of each state/UT with special emphasis on enrolment of children from the disadvantaged population groups such as Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Attempts have been made to determine the number of non-enrolled children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Tribes, sex-wise, both at the primary and middle stages, and to quantify the inputs from central and state government schemes for tribal sub-plans and special component plans for Scheduled Castes. This mechanism helps to keep a watch on expenditure incurred on programmes which are of direct benefit to these communities. As a significant part of the strategy for universalization of elementary education, state governments and Union Territory administrations have been running residential (ashram) schools for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes children, particularly in sparsely populated rural and other backward areas.

As a measure to increase enrolment of children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Tribes, the coverage of SC/ST children under various incentive schemes has been enlarged. During the Sixth

Five Year Plan it is proposed to cover about 9.91 million SC/ST children under the mid-day meals scheme. The expected coverage of SC/ST children under the scheme to supply free uniforms/clothes is 3.6 million. Over 15 million children belonging to SC/ST communities are expected to be covered under the scheme to supply free textbooks and stationery and the coverage of SC/ST girls under the scheme of attendance scholarships for girls is expected to be 5.02 million during the Sixth Plan.

NCERT has been concerned with the development of approaches which help in the accelerated promotion of education among children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The Council supports research as well as preparation of instructional and supplementary reading materials and training of key personnel in states/UTs. The measures taken by the Council for promotion of education of SC/ST children include preparation of textbooks in tribal dialects, development of curricula for education of tribal children, and development of course content on tribal culture and educational problems of the tribes for inclusion in the curriculum of elementary teacher training institutions.

Education of the disabled. Efforts to help the disabled have so far concentrated on welfare and rehabilitation rather than on education. While specialized institutions have been established for various categories of the disabled, their coverage is extremely limited. It is now realized that a large proportion of the disabled can be provided education in the formal school setting and it is only for the severely disabled that specialized institutional arrangements will be needed. The Ministry of Education and Culture has now taken over the responsibility of providing education to disabled children in normal school settings. It is visualized that teachers handling the disabled would be provided special training and in each school, resource rooms would be set up to provide special help to disabled children.

A major problem in expanding educational facilities for disabled children is the lack of trained personnel, particularly teachers, who can meet the educational needs of these children in a normal classroom setting. With a view to meeting the requirements of trained teachers NCERT has set up cells both at its headquarters and in its four Regional Colleges of Education for training teachers in integrated education of the disabled. Similarly, the University Grants

Commission has identified for support some university departments for the training of teachers of the disabled.

Decentralization of educational administration. One of the drawbacks in the administration of elementary education has been the inadequacy of support services. The availability of support services for elementary education has not increased in the same proportion as the number of schools and enrolments. A consequence of this has been the inability of the existing administrative machinery to supervise educational activities.

Appointment of an adequate number of supervisory personnel and decentralization of administration down to the block level is considered essential for the administration, monitoring and evaluation of expansion of educational facilities and their qualitative improvement. The Working Group on Universalization of elementary Education (1978) recommended that administration of elementary education, especially in the states which lag behind in enrolment, should be strengthened and streamlined for effective implementation of the programme of universalization. In pursuance of this recommendation, the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) conducted studies in 1979 on administration of elementary education in relation to universalization of elementary education in nine states. The studies highlighted the need for strengthening the existing set-up for elementary education at various levels – village, blocks, district and directorate. The concerned state governments are expected to streamline educational administration in the light of recommendations made.

Mobilization of community resources. Mobilization of community resources has been viewed as an essential aspect of the programme of universalization of elementary education. Suggestions have been made to Education Departments in states/UTs to set up school committees for all primary and middle schools, particularly in rural and backward areas. It is believed that formation of school committees at the local level would help in ensuring the regular and proper functioning of schools as well as ensuring enrolment and attendance of all children. The involvement of school committees in the affairs of the schools is expected to create community interest in contributing either in cash or in kind to improve the physical facilites of the schools.

Institutional support for universalization of elementary education. Appropriate institutional mechanisms have been established to give special support to universalization of elementary education. At the central level, in the Ministry of Education and Culture, the School Education Bureau headed by a Joint Secretary is responsible for all matters connected with elementary education. In accordance with the recommendations of the Working Group on Universalization of Elementary Education set up in 1977, a separate Division to look after the programme of universalization of elementary education has been created. Senior officers of the level of Joint Secretary in the Ministry of Education have been nominated as Area Officers for different states and Union Territories to advise state governments in matters connected with the implementation of the programme. At the state level the Department of Education headed by a Secretary in the Ministry of Education, assisted by the Directerate of Public Instruction/Director of Education, is responsible for the overall administration and implementation of programmes associated with elementary eduation.

A National Committee on Elementary Education was constituted in 1978 to guide and oversee the programme of universalization of elementary education in the country. The Committee, which has been redesignated as 'National Committee on Point 16 of the New 20 Point Programme', is headed by a Secretary to the Department of Education, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India. This Committee meets periodically to review progress and to look into the problems faced in the implementation of the programme of universalization of elementary education.

In states – Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal – which together have about 70 per cent of non-enrolled children, task forces have been set up to oversee the progress of universalization of elementary education. In addition to the officials of the Department of Education in the state, representatives of the Ministry of Education, Planning Commission, and NIEPA are members of the Task Force for each state. These task forces meet periodically to review progress and to undertake an in-depth analysis of the situations and problems of elementary education in the states.

The NCERT continues to assist and advise the Ministry of Education and the state governments on the implementation of policies and major programmes in the field of education, particularly school education. At the state/Union Territory level, the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT)/State Institute of Education (SIE) provides the necessary academic support required for universalization of elementary education. The NIEPA organizes training/orientation courses, seminars, workshops and conferences of senior educational administrators at the central and state levels. It also undertakes studies connected with problems in educational planning and administration.

Establishment of mechanisms for monitoring and evaluation of programmes. Steps have been taken to devise an appropriate system of monitoring and evaluation of the programme of universalization of elementary education. These include monitoring of attendance in addition to enrolment and submission of quarterly reports on the progress achieved. Data in relation to different aspects of elementary education are expected to flow from schools to the Block Education Office, the Block Education Office to the District Education Office, the District Education Office to the Directorate of Public Instruction/Directorate of Education and the Department of Education in the state/UT. To check that information/data are accurate, appropriate action has been taken to develop a suitable mechanism for periodic, on-the-spot checking. It has been suggested that officers of the Education Department available at block and district levels should undertake surprise visits to schools and, as part of their inspection and supervision, verify the exact position in respect of enrolment and attendance.

Detailed information on various aspects of elementary education is collected from states/UTs during discussions with state government officials held every year by the Planning Commission to finalize annual state/UTs plans for education. In addition to this, the Ministry of Education collects annually educational statistics from the states/UTs. These provide information on different aspects of elementary education such as enrolment, number of teachers, number of schools, and the enrolment ratio. The Ministry of Education also obtains quarterly progress reports from the states/UTs on implementation of Point 16 of the New 20 Point Programme.

Monitoring of progress in provision of universal elementary education is carried out at different levels. Besides the 'National Committee on Point 16 of the New 20 Point Programme' and the task forces at the state level, progress is also critically reviewed at the Conference of State Education Ministers generally organized once a year by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education also periodically convenes regional and All India Conferences of State Secretaries to discuss various aspects of education. In these conferences, the progress made and the problems encountered in the field of elementary education are discussed in great detail and appropriate strategies for realizing the goal of universalization of elementary education are formulated. Similarly, NCERT organizes annually a conference of state officers in charge of non-formal education.

Future strategy

By 1990, the population in the age group 6-14 will be roughly 163 million. Since over-age and under-age children constitute about 22 per cent of the enrolment in Classes I-VIII, in order to achieve enrolment of all children in the age group 6-14, the total enrolment in Classes I-VIII will have to be on the order of 198 million in 1990. Since the enrolment in Classes I-VIII in 1984-1985 is expected to be about 113 million, an additional enrolment of about 85 million will have to be achieved during the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990), if universalization of elementary education is to be achieved by 1990. This implies that on an average, additional enrolment during each year of the Seventh Plan will have to be about 17 million, which is indeed a gigantic task, in view of the progress achieved in the past few years.

Preparations are afoot for the drafting of the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990). With a view to formulating specific proposals for inclusion in the Seventh Five Year Plan, the Planning Commission, Government of India has constituted a number of Working Groups on Education. The terms of reference of these Working Groups are as follows:

i) To take stock of the position in respect of this sector of education as is likely to be reached by the end of 1984-1985; to identify problem areas and suggest remedial measures;

ii) To suggest a feasible perspective of development up to 2000 A.D. particularly with a view to equalizing educational opportunities for all sections of the people and to enable the national education system to make its maximum contribution to the development of modern society;

iii) To specify in clear terms the objective of educational development programmes in relation to national development goals as well as the inculcation of an appropriate value system, enrichment and propagation of the diverse Indian culture and the promotion of national integration;

iv) To make recommendations regarding policies and programmes for ensuring the availability on an adequate scale of inputs, particularly suitably qualified teachers, functional buildings, scientific equipment, libraries etc. in the concerned sector of education;

v) To examine in detail the several aspects of making education relevant to developmental needs and to enhance the employability of the educated with particular reference to the need to develop extensively usable skills among the people;

vi) To take note of innovative measures and opportunities to improve the existing facilities and facilitate low-cost alternatives to achieve various specified goals and objectives of educational plans;

vii) To recommend measures for effective institutional linkage between education on the one hand and rural development environment, health, industry and other developmental sectors on the other;

viii) To explore the possibilities of introducing meaningfully long distance learning techniques, particularly the utilization of modern communication technology;

ix) To assess ways and means of augmenting financial resources for educational development including extended local community participation in financing educational development programmes; and

x) To formulate proposals for the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990) in the light of the above perspective indicating priorities, policies and financial costs.

Chapter Four

SIGNIFICANT NEW DEVELOPMENTS AND PROGRAMMES

In recent years, several comprehensive programmes dealing with different aspects of universalization of elementary education have been initiated both at the central and state/Union Territory levels. Prominent among them are experimental projects for developing non-formal systems of education, education of special groups, development and renewal of curricula and instructional/learning materials, early childhood education, utilization of mass-media for education, enhancement of competence of teachers, and strategies for improving the functioning and performance of educational institutions to increase their attracting and holding power. Some of these programmes/projects which are considered significant in the context of the universalization of elementary education are discussed in the following sections.

Non-Formal system of learning

During the past decade there has been a growing concern about the limitations of the formal education system to meet the educational needs of all children in the compulsory schooling age group and in achieving the goal of universal elementary education. The existing rigid formal system which in most cases is sequential and characterized by a single-point entry and full-time professional teachers, keeps away from the fold of education a large number of children who come mainly from families below the poverty line and who therefore are compelled to work to supplement the meagre income of their families. Young girls in most cases look after their younger siblings and both boys and girls from the disadvantaged population groups tend cattle or do other remunerative work starting from an early age. They are unable to attend full-time regular schools and since the existing primary and middle schools do not provide facilities for part-time education, are left behind and remain outside the education system.

A major problem in the field of elementary education today, therefore, is to provide access to education to a large number of children hitherto unreached and to provide an education which would improve the quality of their lives. The concern about this problem has resulted in a search for alternatives to the formal system, for a non-formal system of learning suited to the needs of diverse groups of children in terms of the duration of the course, place and time of study, learning content, methodology of instruction and evaluation. Such a system should provide multi-point entry into formal schooling and the use of community resources which have potential for education, thus providing an education which is more meaningful, relevant and also more accessible than the formal system. Attempts have been made by several agencies, both governmental and non-governmental, to develop a non-formal system of learning as a viable yet complementary and supportive, alternative to formal schooling.

The centrally sponsored non-formal education programme. As part of the measures to enrol non-enrolled children and to retrieve drop-outs, a centrally sponsored non-formal education programme for children in the age group 9-14 was launched in 1979-1980 in the nine states which have the bulk of the non-attending children and drop-outs. The main objectives of the programme are to help states to establish non-formal education centres for out-of-school children in the age group 9-14, to design institutional structures at various levels to develop group and place-specific curricula and instructional materials, and to make education at the elementary stage more meaningful and relevant to the life situations and needs of children.

The instructional programme of non-formal education varies from state to state. The scheme of the Ministry of Education, under which financial assistance is given to states for establishment of non-formal education centres, visualizes three types of instructional programmes. One of them is an instructional programme centred on a condensed version of the formal syllabus for those children who want to join the formal system at a later stage. Under this pattern, the entire five year primary curriculum is condensed into a two-year curriculum based on graded units. The schedules of non-formal education centres, building requirements, admission rules and teaching methods have been made more simple, relevant and flexible. This enables the child to learn at a convenient time and yet simultaneously earn his living or help his parents in their occupations.

The second pattern of instructional programme is built around home-craft, child care and other skills for girls who may not want to join the formal system to continue their studies and may wish to settle down as housewives. The emphasis is on functional courses which will help them to cope with their life situations with responsibility and awareness of the roles that they have to perform.

Another type of instructional programme is to be built around traditional professions like carpet weaving and pottery in which children are already engaged. The programme would focus on literacy, numeracy and citizenship training along with instruction in their craft as well as entrepreneurship and marketing, so that children acquire not only literacy and numeracy but also economic and social understanding of the craft in which they are engaged.

By and large, the instructional programme predominantly employed in existing non-formal education centres is the one based on the condensed version of the formal curriculum. Special instructional materials have been developed for the diverse environmental situations and needs of each state. The duration of instruction every day is about two hours. The time is decided by the community; it may be in the morning, afternoon or in the evening. In most cases classes are held between 6.00 pm and 9.00 pm. A non-formal education centre in a village or locality is housed either in a primary school building, in a community centre or any other public or private place which is found suitable. The instructors for the centres are mostly selected from among locally available persons. They may be trained unemployed elementary teacher training certificate holders or educated unemployed youth, who have passed the high school examination or in-service elementary school teachers or retired teachers. Instructors are given a short training course before they start teaching at the centres.

The non-formal education programme has gained momentum and by 1982-1983, a total of 91,601 non-formal education centres consisting of 78,738 primary level centres and 12,863 middle level centres were established. The total coverage of children under the programme was 1,950,405 out of which 1,765,805 children were enrolled at the primary stage and 184,600 children at the middle stage, By the end of 1984-1985, the total number of non-formal education centres is expected to be 172,180 with enrolment of 5.3 million children in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal.

The non-formal education programme is also implemented in states and Union Territories other than those mentioned above. In all, by 1982-1983 about 100,000 centres enrolling about 3 million children were established. By 1984-85 the total coverage under this programme is expected to be in the order of at least six million children in the age group 9-14.

In addition to the non-formal education programme sponsored by the Ministry of Education an experimental project for education of out-of-school children was also implemented by NCERT through its constituent units all over the country. Two hundred and twenty-eight non-formal education centres were established in 15 states. The project was undertaken with a view to gaining relevant experiences in the organization of non-formal education programmes in the country. The major activities carried out under the project included development of curriculum, instructional materials and teachers' guides for the primary stage.

The curriculum was built around six major areas of study such as health, vocation, physical and social environment, social awareness, literacy and numeracy. This curriculum was designed in such a way that it would enable children in the age group 9-14 to attain in about two years the competencies attained by a child in the formal primary schools after five years. At present NCERT is engaged in developing curriculum and instructional materials for the middle stage.

The non-formal education programme is being expanded gradually in the states. At the central level, the Ministry of Education through NCERT has been providing the necessary administrative and academic guidance and support to states for implementation of non-formal education programmes. At the state level, SCERT/SIE provides the necessary academic support to the Directorate of Education in implementing the programme.

As part of the scheme for implementation of the non-formal education programme, grants are also being given to voluntary organizations for running these centres and to academic institutions, both government and private, for developing innovative and experimental non-formal education programmes with potential for replication.

'Earn while you learn' Scheme. In order to provide educational opportunities to the children of economically weaker sections of society and to attract out-of-school children to non-formal education centres and to retain them till they complete the elementary stage of education, an innovative scheme known as the 'Earn while you learn' scheme is being implemented in the State of Madhya Pradesh. Under this scheme, along with education, the children enrolled in the non-formal education centres are provided with opportunities to perform some sort of productive work to earn money. They are involved in the production of mats, chalk sticks, sealing wax and school furniture which are regularly used by the Education Department itself. The scheme is operated in collaboration with the Khadi and Village Industries Board in the state, which agreed to provide the basic capital needed and supply raw materials to production centres.

About 300 production centres attached to non-formal education centres have been established so far in the state. Normally, children work in their craft periods, but the production centres remain open throughout the day and on holidays so that the children can utilize their leisure time on productive work. It generally takes an hour to weave one mat and for this work a child gets about Rs.2/-. For making 400 chalks, which can be done in about one hour, he gets Rs.1/-. Children of the age group 9-11 are mostly engaged in production of chalks while children in the age group 11-14 make mats, sealing wax and school furniture. This scheme has evoked great interest, and attempts are being made to expand the scheme by opening more production centres attached to more non-formal education centres.

Developmental activities in community education and participation

In recent years there has been a growing realization that one of the most promising approaches to extending opportunity for education to out-of-school children is a non-formal education programme sustained and supported by the community. An attempt to develop such a community based non-formal education programme for the benefit of different age groups is being made under the UNICEF assisted project, 'Developmental activities in community education and participation (DACEP)', implemented by NCERT in collaboration with SIEs/SCERTs in the states/UTs. Under this project efforts have been made to develop and test new types of educational activities as feasible means of meeting the minimum educational needs of pre-school and out-of-school children, young girls and women, in selected communities and to increase the participation of the community in formal and non-formal education programmes.

The approach followed is based on the premise that children's education to be relevant and meaningful has to proceed concurrently with gradual changes of their socio-economic environment. Efforts are made to develop suitable educational programmes to cater to the needs of pre-school children, out-of-school children in the age group 9-14 and young girls and women in the age group 15-35. Attempts are also made to impart useful and relevant skills to members of the community outside the formal system of education and to make use, for educational purposes, of the resources of agencies existing within the community.

The project was launched in 1975-1976 in 13 states and two Union Territories. In its first phase (1976-1980), two community education centres were established in each of the participating states/UTs. During this period instructional materials for out-of-school children and for the general education of girls and women were developed and published. In 1981, in order to increase the impact of the experimental project it was introduced more widely in these states/UTs to provide an additional two or three community education centres. In the same year, the project was also extended to nine more states and five Union Territories. The number of community education centres established under the project at present is 102.

Modus operandi of implementation of project. To develop need-based educational activities for the various age groups in the selected communities, a survey of socio-economic conditions of each of the communities in the project areas was conducted. The development of instructional materials was decentralized and was carried out with the participation of the local community and teachers. The co-operation of various development departments such as agriculture, community development, industries, health and family welfare and voluntary organizations was sought in this process.

In order to meet the educational needs of the whole community, the community education centres offer programmes for four different age groups of learners. In the age group 0-3 and mothers, the centres have been co-ordinating basic services available for the health of children and expectant and lactating mothers. Some of the centres have developed instructional materials for mothers, focused on information about the health needs of children and mothers. An attempt is now being made to use these materials as a base for promoting literacy and numeracy among the mothers. The materials being developed for children in the age group 3-6 are aimed at meeting the needs of the children as well as educating their parents on how to promote school readiness among children, even when facilities for pre-school education are available. For the age group 6-14, instructional materials are prepared both to help children reach specific levels of achievement which will enable them to get into the formal schools and to promote functional literacy. Likewise, instructional materials for girls and women in the age group 15-35 utilize the participation of learners in developmental and productive activities as a base for promoting literacy and numeracy. Some of the instructional materials developed by the project for the age groups 6 to 14 and 15 to 35 have been accepted by states/UTs for wider use in non-formal education centres.

Each of the centres has an average enrolment of about 105 learners. In terms of age group, this enrolment works out to be 28 for the age group 0 to 3, 24 for the age group 6-14 and 53 for the age group 15 to 35. Besides regular enrolment, there are casual learners at each centre who attend specific programmes at their convenience.

In some states, the activities of the community education centres have provided very encouraging results in terms of increasing the literacy rate in the community. For instance, one of the community education centres in Madhya Pradesh has pushed the literacy rate in the community from 30 per cent to 60 per cent over a period of five years. Two other centres in Madhya Pradesh achieved 100 per cent enrolment of children in the age group 6 to 14. Similarly in Orissa, one of the community education centres increased the literacy rate in the community from 20 per cent to 54 per cent over a period of three years.

Comprehensive access to primary education (CAPE)

It has been realized that it is possible to reach out-of-school children only through a suitably designed non-formal education programme. This implies development of target-group oriented and decentralized programmes in regard to curriculum, instructional/learning materials, pattern of instruction and evaluation. With a view to developing a variety of models of non-formal education, a few innovative projects have been initiated in recent years. The UNICEF assisted project 'Comprehensive Access to Primary Education (CAPE)' being implemented by NCERT in collaboration with the SIEs/SCERTs in states and Union Territories is an attempt in this direction.

Project CAPE aims at developing a non-formal system of education and evolving flexible, problem-centred and work-based decentralized curricula and learning materials (learning episodes) relevant to the needs and life situations of diverse groups of learners. Under the project locally relevant learning materials (learning episodes) are being developed for education of out-of-school children in the age group 9-14. These episodes are developed through the introduction of a training-cum-production mode into the curriculum of elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs) and/or into the in-service training course for primary school teachers. The episodes developed by the teacher trainees and/or in-service teachers, after processing, refinement and publication will be used in a network of experimental learning centres to be established in the states/UTs participating in the project. Thereafter, evaluation centres and accreditation services will be established to enable the children enrolled in the learning centres to receive credit for their academic achievements.

Project CAPE was launched in ten states and three Union Territories in 1979-1980. Seven states and two Union Territories commenced project activities in 1980, one state in 1981, two states and one Union Territory in 1982 and one in 1983. At present the project is implemented in all states/UTs except Tripura, Arunachal Pradesh, Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Pondicherry.

In all states/UTs participating in the project, the activities of the first phase of the project involving development and publication of learning episodes is in progress. The second phase of the project which involves establishment of learning centres will commence in 1984, while the third phase the establishment of evaluation centres and accreditation services will commence in 1985.

Major focus of Project CAPE. The major focus of Project CAPE is on learners from the disadvantaged populations, Scheduled

Castes, Scheduled Tribes, backward classes and girls. Among these learners are those elementary school age children who have never had the opportunity of attending school and those who have dropped out at the early stage of elementary education. The project would also cater to the needs of slow learners attending formal school. The educational programmes being developed under Project CAPE are characterized by openness in time and duration of learning, openness in curriculum, openness in methodologies of instruction and openness in evaluation. They are so designed as to enable learners to progress at their own pace on a part-time basis according to their convenience. Non-formal education programmes being developed under the project, however, will cover in most cases children in the age group 9-14 only. Children in the age group 6-8 are not included mainly because children below nine years of age would not be mature enough to benefit from non-formal education, and also because inclusion of children below the age of nine could adversely effect the efforts for universal enrolment of children in the formal schools.

Process of curriculum development. The salient features of curricula and learning materials being developed under the project are their relevance to the learners, flexibility, local specificity and relationship to socially useful productive work, as well as social service related to the welfare of the local community. In order to provide learning experiences which are area-specific, flexible and relevant to the learners, the process of curriculum development is decentralized.

To enhance the relevance of the curriculm, it is developed from local and real-life problems or situations which are of significance and are of immediate concern to the learners. Personal, family, community, vocational, social and development problems and activities, inclusive of socially useful productive work, represent important sources of content for learning materials. Problems are identified *where* the disadvantaged children reside. Learning materials are thus, not discipline-based textbooks, consisting of a series of lessons, but are in the form of self-contained and independent learning units which are multidisciplinary in structure and content so as to cater more effectively to learners of different abilities, preferences and interests.

A learning material so developed is called a learning episode. Being problem-centred and work-based, the learning episodes allow natural integration of different subject areas and disciplines taught at the elementary stage of education. Efforts are made to establish continuity between learning experiences in the home and community and those acquired in contrived situations at learning centres.

Under the project, learning materials are also being developed for use in situations where more formalized and structured learning is required, especially in core areas such as literacy, numeracy, environmental awareness and science related skills. These learning materials are also being developed in modular format so as to make them suitable for intermittent learning and individual pacing.

Learning episodes are designed with the goal of imparting necessary levels of literacy, numeracy, 'techniracy' and functional skills related to solutions to local problems and environmental needs. They are developed with specific *Expected Behavioural Outcomes (EBOs)* in mind, which serve as a common standard for evaluation of both in-school and out-of-school children. This will enable children enrolled in learning centres to obtain proper certification of their achievement as well as to take advantage of multi-point entry facilities in regular full-time schools, if they so desire. The number and variety of learning episodes will be such that study covering about 1,200 hours of learner-engaged time, spread over a period of five terms of about 120 working days each, would enable a child in the age group of 9-14 (who, in terms of competence, is at the level of a new entrant in Class I in formal schools) to attain the competencies expected of children by the end of five years of formal primary education. A further study of learning episodes covering an additional 1,200 hours of learner-engaged time, again spread over a period of five terms of about 120 working days each, would enable him or her to attain the essential competencies expected of children at the end of the three year middle stage of education in formal schools. Therefore, the study of learning episodes covering a total learner-engaged time of about 240 working days each, is expected to enable children enrolled in the learning centres to attain the essential competencies expected of children by the end of eight years of formal elementary education. However, for drop-outs from the formal channel of education, the total period of study would be less than ten terms, depending upon the stage at which they have dropped out and the level of their competence at the time of their enrolment in learning centres.

Under the project, a list of critical competencies and learning continua, derived from learning episodes which themselves are drawn from, significant real-life, area-specific problems are being developed. Graded tests are also being evolved to help learners achieve the desired level of competence. These would act as a rational basis for accreditation of learners in terms of the essential competencies to be acquired at different stages of elementary education.

One of the major outcomes of Project CAPE is the availability of a large number of relevance-based, problem-centred and work-based learning episodes for education of out-of-school children in the age group 9-14. These draft learning episodes developed by the teacher trainees and teacher educators of TTIs and in-service teachers are now being processed, refined and published for use in learning centres expected to be established during 1984.

Another outcome of the project is the improvement of the quality and relevance of the elementary teacher education programme by upgrading the competence of a large number of teacher educators and teacher trainees of TTIs in developing locally relevant learning materials and utilizing environmental resources for developing appropriate instructional strategies for diverse groups of learners. The introduction of the training-cum-production mode into the curriculum of TTIs forms the basis for developing a functional and task oriented elementary teacher education. Under this mode, teacher trainees are required to visit sites of disadvantaged populations, conduct surveys to identify real-life problems and develop and try-out learning episodes for out-of-school children in the age group 9-14. Thus, this mode helps in making training processes in elementary teacher training institutes more practical and responsive to needs and problems of different groups of learners.

The project has also helped in the establishment of an infrastructure for decentralized curriculum development for education of out-of-school children. The CAPE Group, NCERT acts as the Central Resource Centre (CRC) and functions as the technical, co-ordinating and monitoring agency at the national level. For carrying out project activities at the states/UTs level, Regional Decentralized Resource Centres (RDRCs) have been established in the State Councils of Educational Research and Training/State Institutes of Education. The elementary teacher training institutes/in-service teachers training institutes are responsible for providing the academic and administrative support necessary for successful implementation of the project at the district/block level.

Action-research project on Universal Primary Education

Another innovative project for developing an appropriate strategy for education of out-of-school children is the 'Action-research project on Universal Primary Education' being implemented by the Indian Institute of Education in Pune, in the State of Maharashtra. This project initiated in 1979, aims at enrolling out-of-school (illiterate) children in the age group 9-14 in a part-time, non-formal education programme as well as developing techniques of planning and management for this programme in collaboration with the community. The project is also directed at developing a curriculum suited to the culture, environment and needs of learners and the community, effective but low-cost teaching-learning materials which would give scope for individual as well as group learning in an ungraded class, appropriate strategies for training of teachers for non-formal and formal primary education and training of supervisors.

The action-research project is spread over 100 villages in five areas of different agro-climatic conditions across the Pune district in the State of Maharashtra. The population of the five areas taken together is about 150,000, out of which about 19,000 are out-of-school children.

The project visualizes an integrated system of primary education in every locality with two separate but co-ordinated and mutually supportive channels of formal and non-formal education. Consequently, the project lays great stress on improvement of the non-formal channel and its integration with the formal channel.

Teaching/learning activities. The core curriculum developed under the project covers literacy, numeracy and general information on history, geography, science and culture, meaningfully related to the learners' environment and future growth as skillful and knowledgeable citizens. In addition, songs, stories and games form part of total learning. Learners are also encouraged to engage in traditional activities such as drawing and handicrafts in their leisure time.

Teaching-learning materials are specially prepared and are of low cost. Some are prepared by teachers and pupils. The educational process consists of learning by playing, singing, observing, sharing and communicating. Under the project a lot of importance is given to making teachers aware of the social aspects of primary education. They are also introduced to the general problems of education and their relationships to national development. They are given a significant participatory role in planning, implementing and evaluating the project.

The part-time classes for children are so organized that, if needed, they can be closed down for a while for instance, during the rainy season or busy agricultural seasons. Roughly, a class meets for about 300 days in a year and about two hours per day. Each class has about 20 pupils who form four small groups for co-operative peer-group learning. A good deal of the curriculum is taught orally in the initial stages, when major emphasis is laid on breaking the barrier of illiteracy. This oral instruction is continued but is gradually reduced as learners are able to read and comprehend new materials on their own. Instead of books, sets of cards are used for initating and reinforcing literacy and numeracy. An ungraded system is used and the curriculum divided into two stages only: Stage I covering broadly Classes I-IV and Stage II covering Classes V-VIII. Stage I is covered in two years.

Community participation. A salient feature of the project is its community approach to the problem of primary education. The community provides free accomodation for conducting part-time classes and supplies certain equipment, wherever possible. An Education Committee of leading villagers is formed at the local level to assist in the implementation of activities at the non-formal education centre. Teachers are drawn from among members of the community and are farmers, artisans, labourers, housewives and others who have studied at least up to Class VII. The local committees which have been participating very actively in planning and conducting part-time non-formal education activities have become aware of their capability to think about and perhaps even to solve their educational problems. This intensive participation in planning and monitoring of the project by the community is expected to facilitate the acceptance of the innovative features of non-formal education and lead to the transfer of techniques to the community at the close of the project. It is expected that in due course, a local community will accept the responsibility for education of all its members as well as for local development.

Outcomes of the project. One of the major outcomes of the project is that it has provided a community-based and decentralized model for the organization of universal primary education, including linkages with the education of other age-groups and local development. It has led to the planning of a comprehensive strategy for universal elementary education, with special emphasis on children from deprived social groups and the evolution of an integrated system of formal and non-formal education.

Education of special groups

The disparity that exists among different sections of the population has been discussed in relation to two groups which have been identified in the Constitution for protective discrimination. In the case of the Scheduled Castes, financial support and incentives are the primary means to promote enrolment and retention. They are so intermixed with other population groups that no special institutional facilities are visualised on a countrywide basis. Scheduled Tribes, on the other hand, form a distinct group for educational planning since most of them live in communities which are closely knit and often at a distance from main population centres. In many cases they live close to forests and are often isolated from the mainstream of national life. There are other special groups – the disabled, the nomadic; for which special educational provisions have to be thought of. In meeting their educational needs under the programme of universalization, State effort has been very limited. Some innovative programmes are being implemented, often by voluntary organizations; these programmes are providing experiences for developing a systematic plan of action. We discuss here some of the governmental and non-governmental programmes.

Ashram schools. Children belonging to the Scheduled Tribes are generally first generation learners. There are no facilities either in their home or village for them to pursue their studies. Parents, being illiterate, are unable to help them in their home assignments. Poverty does not allow them to continue their education. To counter these problems, ashram schools are being established for tribal communities. These schools attempt to provide culturally relevant education in the setting of the children's own environment. Free board and lodging are made available in these schools. Their number is very limited, a few hundred, and is completely inadequate to meet the requirements.

Many states have set up these schools. They provide education at elementary and secondary levels. Exclusive schools for girls known as Kanyashrams have also been established. The curriculum has a slightly different orientation in the sense that much emphasis is laid on cultural activities, arts and crafts and the needs of the people. Students have to manage their own affairs leading to the inculcation of a sense of self-reliance. Specially qualified and trained teachers are appointed who live with students and help them in their home assignments. Self-sufficiency is also emphasized and pupils are encouraged to grow their own food on land attached to the school. Though ashram schools incur a higher per capita expenditure compared to ordinary primary schools, their advantages far outweigh the additional investment. An ashram school is not just another type of residential school. Its atmosphere, the approach to teaching, the fellow-feeling among students, and an attitude of service among teachers are their unique features.

Ashram schools have been very popular. This is indicated by the fact that they run to their full capacity. Evaluative studies have indicated that students of ashram schools perform, on the whole, much better than those of ordinary elementary schools. A sense of self-sufficiency and self-reliance is inculcated among the students. The overall quality of education has improved and, most important of all, the incidence of wastage and stagnation has been considerably reduced.

Inter-village schools. Tribal areas have a large number of small habitations with populations of less than 200. According to the norms laid down by different state governments, schools are opened only in villages which have a population of 300 or more, and in special cases, of 200 or more. Thus many tribal villages do not qualify for a school. For quite some time they are likely to remain outside the governmental effort at universalization. To get over this problem the Arunachal Pradesh Government has started opening inter-village schools. The objective is to provide educational facilities to children living in small and remote hamlets so as to increase enrolment in schools and to make education accessible by providing free board and lodging. Smaller hamlets with sparse populations are identified and a central village, almost equi-distant from all the feeder villages, is selected. The inter-village school with a hostel is opened in the central village and children from all the feeder villages admitted and housed in the hostel. This obviates the necessity of small children commuting long distance to attend schools. In order that students do not get isolated from their own village life, they are allowed to go back to their villages during holidays.

As compared to single-teacher schools, where enrolment is very poor and regular teaching is not satisfactory because of the frequent absence of the teacher, an inter-village school is a much better alternative. Attendance reported is often much higher, wastage and drop-out much less and teaching regular. Though the per capita expenditure is a little higher compared to an ordinary school, the advantages flowing from these schools are very great.

The Bidisa Experiment on education of the under-privileged. This innovative project is being implemented for the Lodha community, an ex-criminal tribe, at Bidisa in West Bengal, the objective being to 'educate the tribes and acculturize and socialize them with a view to bringing them into the fold of the mainstream of society'.

The project started with a survey of the community, on the basis of which an educational action programme was drawn up. Primary and secondary schools were opened with residential facilities. The curriculum is supplemented with interesting and relevant activities enabling children to acquire skills to earn their livelihood in later life. Parents also are provided the necessary technology to improve their production and live a better life. They are closely involved with school activities. It is also intended to bring about a desirable value change in parents through their children.

This is a very comprehensive project involving students, parents, teachers, social workers and authropologists. The main advantage flowing from this project is that a much larger number of Lodha children are attending school today than did in the past. They have acquired skills which will ultimately make them self-sufficient Another advantage is the impact it has created on parents in weaning them away from criminal propensities. Instead of bringing abrupt changes in a traditional society, which can at times be disruptive, the project is ushering in a gradual change to which members of the community are able to adjust easily.

Vakaswadi project. This project is run at Kosbad in Maharashtra. It is located in a tribal area and is intended primarily for tribal children. It has three main components – a creche and primary school, a productive work centre for children, and the meadow school. The main objectives of the project are to decrease the incidence of drop-out, and to bring about an all-round development of tribal children. Education is informal. It is taken right to the doorsteps of children, as every evening workers go to the village, collect the children, and start activities like singing, story telling and playing with different kinds of locally prepared teaching aids. With the help of such informal activities interest in education is created.

When the primary school was first opened, people were not very enthusiastic and attendance was rather thin. It was found that children, particularly girls of school-going age, could not come to school due to various economic preoccupations. The problem was solved by opening a composite unit of creche-cum-*balwadi*-cum-school. Younger children could be left in the creche or *balwadi* while those of school-going age attended primary school. In order to improve attendance, an experiment in providing children work opportunities while studying was introduced. They prepared straw covers for bottles. The contract for them was secured from firms in Bombay. This could not last long as organized units came into the field and competition grew. Work centres were then opened where training in woodwork, lacquer work, toy making and other crafts was given. A market was found for the finished goods by forming co-operative societies.

The meadow school is also a unique experiment. Education is taken to children who graze cattle in the meadow. Since children cannot come to school leaving their cattle, teachers go out to the meadow, put some children to grazing cattle and others to learning. After a time duties are changed so that all children alternatively graze cattle and receive education. They are taught through the environment, for example by measuring the shadow of a tree, counting pebbles, learning geography by the sun, the wind, the mountains and other physical phenomena. Thus learning is made relevant by relating it to the local environment.

Evaluation has indicated that enrolment in primary school has increased and the drop-out rate decreased. The performance of students has been encouraging in all subjects except languages. The weakness in language was because they were taught in the regional language and not through their mother tongue. Interest in the education of their children was also aroused among the parents.

Primary education curriculum renewal

One of the major problems in implementing universal elementary education in India has been the diversities that prevail. Because of the geographical, economic, social and cultural variations, the needs of learners are diverse and, therefore, uniform curricula, learning materials and instructional strategies have not always been relevant to the needs of diverse groups of children. One of the major concerns in elementary education has, therefore, been to evolve new curricula or curriculum approaches that would provide a programme of education to effectively meet the requirements of diverse groups. Certain innovative projects for development and renewal of primary education curricula with the purpose of improving the relevance of formal schooling have been undertaken in recent years. Prominent among the on-going projects for development and renewal of the primary education curricula is the UNICEF-assisted project 'Primary Education Curriculum Renewal (PECR)' being implemented by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in collaboration with SIEs/SCERTs in the states/UTs. The project aims at developing innovative curricula and instructional materials relevant to the needs of different groups of children and to adjusting the existing curriculum qualitatively to the life-style of the child and the socio-economic opportunities likely to be available. It also aims at creating to the necessary competence among educational planners and workers at different levels for developing and implementing curricula which by their content and methodology would reflect the socio-economic, geographical and cultural environment.

The pilot stage of the project was initiated in 1975-1976 in 13 states and two Union Territories, covering 30 experimental schools in districts representing fairly wide variations in terms of social, cultural, geographical patterns and economic pursuits. The next stage, which was completed in the year 1980, covered 450 primary schools and 45 elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs). During this phase, relevant instructional materials for Classes I to V in regional languages as well as appropriate teaching-learning strategies were evolved for education of children studying in the project schools. Instructional materials included textbooks, guidance materials for teachers and workbooks.

Encouraged by the experience gained during its pilot phase, and in order to increase its impact in the 13 states and two Union Territories already participating, the project was introduced more widely by including a further 100 schools in each state/UT and at the same time extending it to the remaining states and all but one Union Territory. The new states and Union Territories have selected

30 schools each for implementation of the project. Thus, at present 180 teacher training institutes and 2,469 primary schools are involved in the implementation of the project. About 400,000 students are enrolled in the project schools and 11,000 teachers from these schools have been trained under the project.

Process of curriculum development. The processes of developing and implementing the curriculum are decentralised and those personnel most closely concerned with its implementation are involved in its development. The curriculum is designed on the basis of the data obtained from a detailed socio-economic and educational survey of each of the areas in which the project is implemented. In some states, surveys indicated wide variations between different regions in terms of social and cultural characteristies, geographical patterns and economic pursuits. In these states, different sets of instructional materials for children from different regions are being developed. Some states are using a common set of textbooks accompanied by teachers' guides which suggest different teaching-learning activities to take care of the special needs of children in different areas.

While learning activities are drawn from the environment of the child, curriculum is directed to attainment of certain essential competencies by the child. A list of competencies related to computation (mathematics), communication (language), healthy living, environmental studies, artistic and creative expression, and socially useful productive work (SUPW) have been identified. This was then reduced to the most essential ones, to be learned at the mastery level and graded in a sequence (continuum). Based on this list, a *'Minimum Learning Continuum (MLC)'* indicating the competencies expected of a learner at the end of the primary stage of education has been developed. The MLC provides guidance to curriculum framers and writers of instructional materials for use by children and teachers of the project schools. Some states have started using the MLC for reviewing and revising their syllabi for primary classes.

States and Union Territories participating in the project are at different stages of development/renewal and try-out of curricula and instructional materials. They have been experimenting with a variety of approaches to the development of curriculum for the primary stage. Most of them are developing curriculum for separate subjects, while some are adopting an integrated approach.

Emphasis has also been laid on the adoption of new teaching and evaluation methodology, which would ensure achievement of competencies at mastery level. Participation in activities, inside as well as outside the classroom, characterizes the learning process. Emphasis is laid on promotion of desirable values, attitudes and behaviour patterns among children. Planned activities are adopted to promote healthy living. For socially useful productive work and creative expression, use of local resources is encouraged. A teacher is given freedom to devise and adopt suitable innovative teaching-learning strategies.

Wider infusion/adoption. A phased programme for the develment and try-out of new curricula and instructional materials in project schools, and strategies for wider adoption of the concepts evolved and techniques developed have been drawn up. Instructional materials being developed are tried-out in the project schools. Necessary modifications on the basis of try-out data are being made. Simultaneously steps are being taken for wider infusion of curricula into the education system of states/UTs. A number of states have already initiated steps for wider infusion of the curriculum and instructional materials developed under the project into their education system.

As a result of the project, small states like Nagaland and Sikkim and Union Territories like Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Lakshadweep and Pondicherry have started developing, for the first time, their own curricula and instructional materials for primary school children. Earlier they were using instructional materials developed in the neighbouring states. It is expected that the development of curriculum relevant to the needs of children will give a fillip to the programme of universalization elementary education in all states/Union Territories participating in the project.

Under the project appropriate infrastructure for curriculum development has been created at the state/UT level, thereby generating a self-sustaining process of curriculum development and renewal. The Primary Curriculum Development Cell (PCDC) in the NCERT acts as the central technical co-ordinating and monitoring agency. Each state/UT has formed a State Primary Curriculum Development Cell (SPCDC) for implementation of the project. At the district and block levels the elementary teacher training institutes together with the District and Block Education Officers or a designated inspector or supervisor are responsible for supervision of primary schools participating in the project and for academic and administrative support necessary for successful implementation of the project.

Early childhood education programme

There is a growing awareness of the crucial significance of the pre-school years for the optimum development of the child. A number of research studies and intervention programmes that focus on the pre-school child indicate that the foundation for later development is laid in the early years and that deprivation suffered during these years is likely to act as a hindrance to the subsequent development of the child.

Early childhood education is now assuming increasing importance for various reasons: its direct influence on child development and the potential contribution that it is likely to make to the programme of universalization of elementary education. It has been recognized that early childhood education programmes could contribute in two ways to the programme for universal elementary education. First, they give the child the chance to become familiar with the ideas of constructive play and to develop desirable behavioural patterns. Early childhood education is, therefore, considered to be an important adjunct to the preparation for primary schools.

The other way that early childhood education contributes to universal elementary education is that it allows out-of-school girls to attend schools, instead of remaining at home to look after their younger siblings. Girls who remain at home to look after their younger sisters or brothers form a major part of the out-of-school population, especially in rural areas. Since primary schools have no creches or pre-school centres attached to them and since girls are not permitted to bring young children with them, a large number of girls are compelled to remain away from schools. This acts as a positive disincentive in the system against the spread of education among girls from poor families. It is felt that if a pre-school is attached to a primary school and if girls who are required to look after young children are encouraged to bring them to it, it would improve the enrolment and attendance of girls at the primary stage.

Establishment of suitable arrangements for early childhood education are being taken up in a significant way, particularly for children of first generation learning families. Early childhood education has so far been an urban phenomenon, largely under private auspices. It has now been proposed to extend facilities for early childhood education to rural areas, also with the involvement of different associations of voluntary agencies. The Government of India has, therefore, initiated a scheme to extend assistance to voluntary agencies for running early childhood education centres in rural and backward areas.

Children's Media Laboratory. The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) has initiated programmes for developing a model of pre-school education which is indigenous in character. The Children's Media Laboratory (CML), a UNICEF assisted project implemented by NCERT, has been exploring and developing simple, inexpensive and effective media (print, audio, projected and play materials) of educational and entertainment value to children of the age group 3-8.

The major activities carried out under the CML since 1977 include surveys of indigenous and locally available toys and educational games, preparation of manuals of games, preparation of graphic materials, audio programmes and projected aids, training of state level personnel in different aspects of utilization of children's media and sponsoring of study visits by workers in the area of early childhood education. Most of the CML materials have been prepared with the specific aim of developing language and cognitive skills in young children. The print and graphic materials developed under the project include picture stories and colour and form booklets to acquaint pre-schoolers with concepts of colour and form, using examples from the child's immediate environment. Brightly illustrated books consisting of songs and rhymes; children's games for use of pre-primary and primary teachers and teacher educators; playing cards aimed at developing cognitive and language skills such as naming, identification, matching and classification; games for developing language and numerical skills and for promoting nutrition, personal health and hygiene; and cards for developing sequential thinking, time perception and matching ability have also been developed. In addition, a School Readiness Kit for use of children who do not have any experience of learning in a pre-school, well-illustrated pamphlets on different themes giving hints to parents on how to foster child development at home and manuals for teachers on play materials have also been produced. Other materials developed under the project include audio-tapes, slide-tape programmes and films for promoting environmental awareness and language and cognitive skills.

CML has been involved in monitoring and evaluation of radio programmes broadcast by All India Radio through some of its stations for young children and in the development of prototype programmes for children in the age group 3-8 years. Fellowships are awarded to teacher educators to undertake studies and projects on early childhood education in the country.

The materials developed and published by CML are fed into existing projects catering to the needs of pre-school and early primary-school age children. A research study to assess the impact on children from disadvantaged populations of materials developed by CML has shown that children, by and large, benefit from these materials.

Training for Early Childhood Education (ECE). No early childhood education programme can succeed without adequate training of the personnel involved. A number of states and Union Territories have developed programmes of early childhood education in the form of nursery schools, creches and other similar institutions run either as a component of social welfare or education programmes. However, many of these institutions lack both the material resources and the trained manpower to provide an adequate educational programme. Therefore, there has been a growing need for programmes to develop the capacity at the state level to train educators for an effective pre-school education programme. The Early Childhood Education project, being implemented by NCERT in collaboration with the state level agencies, is an attempt to fulfil this need.

The main objectives of the project are to assist the State Departments of Education to set up early childhood education units at training institutes, to strengthen existing institutions and to train teacher educators and teachers in early childhood education. The project also aims at orienting supervisors and administrators to different aspects of early childhood education, and at developing basic learning and play materials for use of pre-school children.

The project was launched in six states in 1982. During 1983, three more states joined the project. Two more states are expected to commence implementation of the project in 1984. Under the project teacher educators and pre-school teachers have been trained in the content and methodology of early childhood education, while the supervisors have been oriented to the supervision and management of early childhood education activities. Several basic training materials for the use of pre-school teachers and teacher educators, and learning materials for pre-school children have also been developed.

In each state and Union Territory participating in the project, a centre for early childhood education has been established. Five elementary teacher training institutes and 65 pre-schools are involved in the implementation of the project in each state. It is proposed to undertake the development of pre-school facilities on a large scale by establishing an additional 5,000 pre-primary schools in the next few years in selected states, especially where programmes are an integral component of basic services being provided for the underprivileged sections of the society.

Utilization of the mass media for school education

A significant development in recent years has been the effort to utilize mass media for education. The Ministry of Education initiated in 1972 an Educational Technology Programme. The programme was directed at deploying the resources of educational technology for bringing about a qualitative improvement in education, widening access to education and reducing existing disparities between different regions of the country as well as different sections of the population. The scheme was formulated in the context of expansion of television facilities and the possibility of a satellite being made available for educational purposes. It was intended to stimulate the use of television as well as other instructional media, such as radio and film, to improve the quality of education.

Thus, a centrally sponsored scheme envisaged the setting up of an Educational Technology Unit in the Ministry of Education; a Centre for Educational Technology (CET) in the NCERT for research, training and production of prototypes and Educational Technology Cells in the State Departments of Education for promoting the use of educational technology. The CET was set up in 1973 and so far ET Cells have been set up in 21 states, the only state yet to set up an ET Cell being Tripura. The Union Territories were not covered under the programme.

The Instructional television programme. The role of television as a medium of education was clearly defined in 1973 by a seminar on the software objectives of Indian television. The seminar recommended:

> Television must be utilized in the development process as an instrument of social change and national cohesion by unhesitatingly upholding progressive values and involving the community in a free dialogue. Indian television has to shun an elitist approach and consumer value systems, and evolve a national model. Television as a support to better education should assist the teacher effectively. It should cater for both in-school and out-of-school education. Primary education should be given priority. However, experiments at other levels of education should also be carried out. Television should disseminate information about specific aspects of science and technology, agriculture, health and family planning etc; with assistance from supportive units in the concerned departments. It should also take an active role in developing a scientific temper by taking up the day-to-day problems of people.

The one-year Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE), which concluded on 31st July, 1976, marked a beginning in the development of a series of innovative and constructive television programmes for national development and for educating the masses living in remote rural areas. The SITE programmes reached a rural population of about 3.5 million spread over 2,230 far-flung villages in six Indian States – Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan. The programmes were telecast in the morning and evening of each day. The morning programmes were designed to suit the need of children in the age group 5 to 12. The duration of this programme was 22½ minutes for each cluster. General development programmes on agriculture, health and family planning and entertainment were telecast in the evening. The evening programmes were of 30 minutes duration for each cluster and there was a programme of half an hour a day for all clusters, including 10 minutes of live national news.

The SITE educational programmes were telecast during school hours. They were aimed at developing among children a positive attitude to formal education, by making the process of education interesting, creative, purposive and stimulating. The programmes were so designed as to familiarize children with facts and matters normally beyond their usual observation. In each programme, maximum time was devoted to topics on general science (53 per cent), followed by entertainment (13 per cent), national awareness (12 per cent), health and nutrition (7.5 per cent), biographies (4 per cent), making things (3 per cent), social and current problems (3 per cent) and other areas (1.5 per cent).

During the SITE programmes, data on life and communication patterns, and attitudes and responses to developmental and educational messages, were collected. During and after the experiment, a good deal of formative and summative evaluation was undertaken which has provided valuable information on matters related to the audience, the impact of the programmes and the nature of viewing conditions. This has provided the basis for future programming. The experiment has indicated that if ever there was an effective means of reaching out to communities barely touched by the developmental process, television is one of the best. For a large country like India, satellite television is one of the most suitable methods of reaching remote and isolated areas.

Plan of operation for the utilization of television for education. Encouraged by the impact of SITE in providing education to people in remote rural areas, the Government of India initiated in 1979 steps to develop a plan for the utilization of television and other facilities that were expected to become available with the launching of the Indian National Satellite (INSAT). In February 1980, a Working Group was set up to draw up a detailed software plan for utilization of INSAT through the medium of television. It was suggested that the television facilities of INSAT should be used as an aid to economic development and social change and to benefit as large a population as possible.

Keeping in view this decision, in May 1980, the Ministry of Education set up a study group to plan the educational component of INSAT television utilization. The group has recommended that programme production centres be set up in states in a phased manner. Keeping in view the recommendations of the study group, the Government of India has now decided to enlarge the Centre for Educational Technology (CET), into a Central Institute of Educational Technology (CIET) for promoting and co-ordinating production of ETV programmes in the states and to establish State Institutes of Educational Technology (SITEs), in the first instance in six states, for promoting production of ETV programmes on a localized basis. The Government of India has also decided to continue the implementation of an expanded educational technology programme in the remaining states, so that they develop the potential to participate in the INSAT programme in due course. The Government will also introduce an expanded educational technology programme in one state and nine Union Territories not covered by the programme earlier.

Priority areas. The Government has identified certain priority areas of educational programming, particularly in relation to the use of television facilities. These are:

i) Universalization of elementary education, both formal and non-formal;

ii) Non-formal education for adults, linking education to economic and social tasks;

iii) Development of vocational and professional skills;

iv) Training for citizenship;

v) Popularizing science with a view to developing a scientific outlook;

vi) Promoting national integration; and

vii) Providing information about themes of national importance-population, education, energy conservation, preservation of wild life, environmental sanitation, nutrition and health.

It is also proposed to utilize television for the training of teachers. The programmes for teachers are being developed for the purposes of (i) broadening their horizon, (ii) providing straightforward help in formal school teaching and (iii) developing appreciation of the objectives of educational television under INSAT, so as to ensure better utilization. However, till such time as the state production centres are fully operational, the programmes will be limited to elementary education, non-formal education and teacher training.

The Government of India has drawn up an ambitious plan for increasing television coverage in the country. The coverage of terrestrial transmission facilities through microwave links has been enhanced. By the end of 1984, it is expected that 70 per cent of the population will be reached by television. A large proportion of transmission facilities will be available for the educational programmes which will be produced by CIET and the state production centres.

Utilization of radio in education. Though television has been found to possess many positive attributes as a powerful communication medium, it is widely recognized that in the near future it may not be possible to cover the entire country. It might, for instance, be prohibitively expensive to install an adequate number of television sets in each village in the country in the immediate future.

Efforts are, therefore, being made to use simpler and more economical technology to meet India's economic, social, linguistic and geographical requirements. This has resulted in wider and more effective utilization of radio for broadcasting educational programmes throughout the country. Radio is inexpensive compared to television. The technology is simple and more flexible. Today radio sets are available to people in almost all villages in the country. Radio is used to provide more localized and need-based programmes, as there are a large number of radio stations spread over each region and state/Union Territory. A few of the auxiliary stations of All India Radio have already experimented with broadcasting educational programmes related to local needs. It was found that these localized programmes were far more effective than the centralized rural programmes broadcast from the main stations in the states.

Today a large number of radio stations in the country broadcast educational programmes. Teacher training programmes are being organized through radio in a few states. Radio broadcasts are being increasingly used for improving primary education. Many states have initiated steps to integrate radio broadcasts with teaching in schools, particularly in the area of language instruction. An important project in the use of radio for teaching a first language (Hindi) to primary school children is being carried out by the CET in collaboration with the ET Cell in Rajasthan.

The Ministry of Education has set up a Study Group on Radio Utilization for Education, to go into its various aspects as was done by the Study Group on Television Utilization. On the basis of the report of the Study Group, a detailed project for educational broadcasts will be formulated shortly.

In India, the utilization of radio and television facilities for education has so far been at the initiative of All India Radio and Doordarshan. The involvement of education authorities in planning and production of educational programmes was very limited. This drawback has now been rectified by involving ET Cells and educational authorities in the planning and production of programmes. The responsibility for the production of radio and television programmes is gradually being taken over by educational authorities and agencies such as CIET and ET Cells. With the setting up of production infrastructure at the centre and state level, there will be more and better utilization of the media for educational purposes.

Rapport-based programme of school improvement

The low level of academic achievement mainly caused by the low level of efficiency of schools has been a problem of great concern in recent years. This has led to several attempts to devise appropriate strategies for improving the performance of schools. Prominent among the successful efforts, is a rapport-based voluntary programme of school improvement being implemented in the State of Maharashtra.

The results of the secondary school certificate examination conducted in 1976 in the State of Maharashtra indicated that there were a large number of secondary schools in the State in which not even 30 per cent of students secured the minimum marks required for passing the examination. Studies conducted to identify reasons for this low performance indicated that one of the reasons for it was the weakness and low efficiency of the feeder schools at the primary stage. Primary schools, especially those in rural areas, were found to be without adequate physical facilities, equipment and teachers. Insufficient supervision by Inspecting Officers, lack of adequate guidance to teachers, the indifferent attitude of parents and irregular attendance by students created a climate not very congenial to learning. Most primary schools were functioning far below the expected efficiency and generally they were of such low standards that they failed to attract and retain a large proportion of children.

The strategy. It was, therefore, recognized that one way of overcoming the problem of low achievement was to focus attention and effort on the low efficiency secondary school together with the cluster of its feeding primary schools. As part of this effort, a rapport-based programme of school improvement was initiated. The programme aimed at breaking the isolation of weaker schools, and developing a participative climate of co-operation between the school and the community. It also aimed at improving the physical environment of the school, enhancing enrolment and attendance of pupils and improving the teaching-learning process, school organization and management. The programme also focused attention on motivating teachers and pupils to make efforts leading to better standards and better results in examinations.

Coverage of the programme. The programme was initially implemented in one block of the Pune district. In this block a secondary school with a low level of performance, along with its feeder primary schools, were adopted. All the functionaries associated with the school system were brought together to make a systematic effort for school improvement. One of the outcomes of this effort was a marked improvement of the learning environment resulting in better academic achievement by students.

Encouraged by the success achieved, coverage of the programme was expanded in 1979. Complexes of weaker schools were voluntarily adopted by the educational officers in six districts. The coverage was expanded to 746 secondary schools and 7,422 primary schools in 1,122 clusters. The number of students covered by the programme rose to about 1.3 million in primary schools and over 0.3 million in secondary schools.

The major components of the programme include identification of specific deficiencies of schools and planning for their correction, enlisting the co-operation of the community in mobilization of local resources, exchange of experience and mutual learning by teachers in each cluster of schools and building rapport among pupils, teachers, headmasters, inspecting officers, various other functionaries and villagers. The major focus of the project is on creating rapport among persons who work together and on a developmental approach to education with emphasis on non-monetary resources for self-development.

In order to further improve the performance of schools, several new activities have now been initiated. These include group meetings among teachers and with villagers, enrolment drives in co-operation with villagers, extra-classes for bright students and remedial teaching for weak students, formation of parent-teacher associations, forums for innovative teachers and programmes for students, such as improvement of handwriting, communication skills and assistance to poor students.

Outcomes of the programme. The results of this voluntary effort have been quite encouraging. There has been a noticeable increase in enrolment, average attendance, academic achievements of students, community support and an overall improvement in the efficiency of the schools. Over 60 per cent of the schools, both primary and secondary, participating in the programme have shown an increase in enrolment. The percentage of primary schools which showed an increase in average attendance was 60 per cent, while that of secondary schools was about 54 per cent.

Programme for enhancing the competence of teachers

There is a growing recognition of the fact that one of the causes of drop-out and stagnation at the elementary stage of education is the poor quality of teaching. It has been too knowledge oriented, bookish and uninteresting. Therefore, as part of the effort to improve the quality of elementary education, several measures aimed at enhancing the competence of teachers (in-service and pre-service) have been initiated. Prominent among them are correspondence-cum-contact courses for inservice teachers and deputation of untrained in-service teachers to undergo full-time teacher training courses offered by recognized elementary teacher training institutes. These have helped in reducing the number of untrained and underqualified teachers in primary and middle schools.

Along with the efforts aimed at clearing the backlog of untrained and underqualified teachers, a variety of short duration training programmes have also been conducted to update the knowledge of inservice primary teachers. The main objective of these training courses is to orient teachers to current developments in content and methodology of teaching. The duration of these courses varies from three days to four weeks depending upon the objectives of the training programme. A large number of in-service teachers have enrolled in these courses to keep themselves abreast of the recent developments in subjects in primary and middle schools, and to cope with the challenge of the changing curricula and methodology of teaching.

In addition to this, a large number of teachers were also trained under the UNICEF assisted 'Science Education Programme' implemented at the national level by the NCERT in collaboration with the State Institute of Education/State Institute of Science Education/State Council of Educational Research and Training in the states and Union Territories. The Science Education Programme was started in 1967 for the reorganization and expansion of the teaching of science in primary and middle schools. By 1975, almost all the states and Union Territories in the country had implemented the programme in their schools under pilot, wider introduction and universalization phases. The programme involved science curriculum renewal, development of introductory materials, upgrading of elementary teacher training institutes in order to improve pre-service and in-service training, in-service training of teachers and other functionaries and use of the environment and local resources to teach science at the elementary stage. The major achievements of the programme were the experience that it provided in curriculum development and implementation and a change of attitude towards teaching at the primary level.

Several agencies in the country are engaged in the organization and implementation of in-service training courses for primary and middle school teachers. At the national level, NCERT organizes training courses for key personnel and resource persons engaged in training in-service teachers at the elementary stage. At the regional level, training courses for resource persons and key persons at the state/Union Territory level are also organized by the four Regional Colleges of Education which are run by NCERT and located in the States of Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan. They organize training courses for key persons, teacher educators or teachers on a regional basis or for a particular state in their jurisdiction, on demand.

Alternative strategy for in-service teachers' training. One of the major problems in the Indian educational system has been the problem of training and retraining a very large number of school teachers efficiently and economically. With the present system of training teachers through Summer Institutes organized every year in different parts of the country, it would take many years before all school teachers could be trained or retrained. Attempts have therefore been made to develop an alternative strategy by making use of mass media for in-service teacher education, which could reach a large number of teachers simultaneously. The in-service teacher training course in science for primary school teachers, a multimedia package developed by the Centre for Educational Technology (NCERT), represented a major attempt in this direction. The package offered a 12-day teacher-training programme simultaneously to 24,000 primary school teachers spread over different villages covered by the Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE). About 48,000 teachers were trained using the package during 1975-1976.

The different components of the multi-media package were (i) a television programme (22½ minutes); (ii) a radio programme (20 minutes); (iii) activities (2 hours); (iv) study of enrichment materials (30 minutes) and (v) a pre-and-post-telecast/broadcast discussion guided by the teacher monitor (1 hour). The television programmes were telecast using the facilities provided by SITE. These programmes were designed to demonstrate the new approach to science teaching. They also provided opportunities for upgrading the teachers' knowledge and understanding of the subject matter. The telecast was preceded by an introductory talk by the teacher monitor and followed by a general discussion on the content of the programme. The radio programmes were designed to motivate teachers and to provide enrichment of content. Activities included in the guide were aimed at improving teachers' knowledge of the content and at providing examples of simple experiments which could be conducted in the classroom. Enrichment materials provided additional information on content units and the necessary background for science teaching. Interpersonal communication was provided through a trained teacher monitor who acted as the resource person for guiding and conducting the programme in the villages.

The materials of the package consisted of (a) 12 films in four language versions; (b) one stand-by programme on video-tape in four languages; (c) ten radio programmes in four language versions including posters and flash cards for radio-vision programmes; (d) activity guides with 102 activities which could be performed by using low-cost or no-cost equipment; (e) enrichment materials; and (f) substitute materials for each of the film and radio programmes to be used by the teacher monitor in the absence of radio and television programmes. Systematic evaluation of the programme indicated that the package was quite effective in increasing primary school teachers' knowledge of content and pedagogy of teaching science.

Revision of elementary teacher education curriculum. The programmes of professional education of teachers at all levels are under a process of revision in the light of the recommendations made by National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) which was constituted by the Government of India to advise on matters relating to teacher education in the country. After screening extensive data and conducting on-the-spot studies of sampled teacher training institutions, the working groups set up by NCTE submitted their reports in 1975. The findings and suggestions of the working groups were discussed at different levels and finally NCTE released a document titled 'Teacher education curriculum – a framework'. The framework provided certain guidelines for improvement in programmes of teacher education.

The framework of the teacher education curriculum approved by NCTE, has recommended significant changes in the existing teacher education programmes. It highlights the need for flexibility and relevance in courses in order to relate them to local needs and conditions.

The recommendations of the NCTE have been followed by attempts to introduce changes in the existing courses of teacher education both in terms of organization and structure. Thirteen states and three Union Territories have already revised the curriculum of elementary teacher education. The changes introduced in the elementary teacher education curriculum are expected to develop teacher training programmes which are in tune with the emerging needs of Indian society, and improve the quality of teaching in primary and middle schools. It is expected that this will lead, ultimately, to the qualitative improvement of elementary education, resulting in a reduction of drop-out rates.

Chapter Five

RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT

Retrospect

The progress made in the direction of achieving the constitutional obligation of universal elementary education has been by any standards phenomenal, although the goal is yet to be realized. The achievement becomes particularly impressive, considering that after independence India had to grapple with some serious tasks which brooked no delay – the partition of the country requiring rehabilitation of millions of refugees, the integration of feudal princely states, the need to invest resources for building a modern infrastructure, for self-sustained growth in industry and the achievement of self-sufficiency in food production, to name a few. Apart from these, every effort had to be made to ensure that the democratic framework which had been chosen for the country's policy assumed sound foundations.

Despite these and other tasks which had been given priority, substantial investments were made to expand education, so essential for meeting the manpower requirements of a modernizing economy, starting the process of social modernization and for ensuring the participation of the masses in political processes. Educational development was taken seriously as an integrated element of social and economic planning, as it was realized quite early that education had a determining influence on economic, social and political development.

The expansion of elementary education was considered to be an important and priority task. A consequence of the increased attention and effort has been the phenomenal expansion that has taken place in the availability of educational facilities, so that for nearly 93 per cent of the rural population, primary education is available within a kilometre of walking distance. Similarly, facilities for middle school education have become available for over 78 per cent of the rural population within a walking distance of 3 kilometres. Enrolments have grown, especially in the case of girls.

The system now employs over 2.5 million teachers, almost all of whom are trained. Millions of children are provided free meals, uniforms, books and stationery so as to facilitate their enrolment and attendance in schools. Facilities for teacher preparation are more than adequate. Systematic work in the development of syllabi and textbooks has ensured the availability of education of a quality and standard which compares very favourably with more advanced countries. Infrastructure for research and development support to elementary education has been created, as have cadres of trained personnel, even at the grass-roots level.

An important development has been the experimentation with alternative modes of education – the non-formal system of learning, the use of mass media for education facilitated by the availability in orbit of India's own satellite, and distance learning systems. These and other developments have provided experience which can now be utilized to move a step further.

Task ahead

Despite these achievements, the task remains unfinished. Still a large number of habitations do not have educational facilities within easy reach; 120,000 as far as primary schooling is concerned. Of course, these habitations contain a very small fraction of the total rural population. About a fourth of children of the age group 6-11 and nearly sixty per cent of the age group 11-14 are still outside schools. Nearly 70 per cent of these children are girls; a substantial proportion belong to the disadvantaged sections. A large proportion of schools do not have satisfactory buildings; a large number lack even the basic minimum equipment required for effective teaching and learning. The low holding power of schools results in a majority of the students dropping out of elementary schools without completing 7-8 years of schooling. Many of them leave too early, in Grades I and II, to be able to learn even in a rudimentary form, the skills of reading and writing.

The achievement of the goal of universal elementary education has become urgent considering the country's commitment to complete the task by 1990. It has also become more complex, since the groups now to be reached are those who are prevented from taking advantage of education because of social and economic deprivations which the education system cannot redress. The projections made earlier of the new places to be created have been belied by the 1981 census; instead of 35 million children to be enrolled as was visualized earlier, 41 million children are to be provided for. There is also increasing dissatisfaction with the quality of instruction that is offered in elementary schools, requiring simultaneous attention to both the quantitative and the qualitative dimensions.

The exercise for the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990) has been taken in hand. Working groups that have been set up are entrusted with manifold tasks: development of a long-term perspective of educational growth, keeping in view the requirements of the twenty-first century, suggesting short-term goals, indicating the measures required to enhance the relevance of education to national tasks, proposing alternative forms and modes of reaching the unreached and so on.

Development of new designs

The realization has grown that existing forms of education are insufficient to hasten the process of achieving universal elementary education. There is, therefore, an insistence on the development of new designs. Although not yet distinct some elements of the new design are emerging. These include:

(i) Development of a new and open learning system enabling children to attain specified competencies by learning on their own in a variety of situations and utilizing a variety of learning resources;

(ii) Establishment of a variety of resource centres, apart from classrooms of the conventional type, in which a variety of print and non-print materials would be available for use by out-of-school children;

(iii) Derivation of the content of elementary education, as far as possible, from roles and functions that a person has to perform in a given social situation;

(iv) Development of an elementary school in rural areas as the focal point for community development and action, allowing an integration of services provided by various development agencies;

(v) Resort to micro-level planning with local communities being assigned important functions in respect of elementary education;

(vi) Increased use of mass media for elementary education, in supportive, enriching and substitutive roles; and

(vii) Greater emphasis on enhancing the quality and relevance of elementary schooling and on continuous monitoring of students' enrolment.

Each of these ideas has been experimented with and tested in a field setting on a fairly large scale. Thus the process of development of syllabi and textual materials in relation to the needs of specific communities has been undertaken. Substantial experience has also become available in regard to non-formal learning systems and technological support to education. Integration of community concerns with education has been attempted with the assistance of various developmental agencies. These and other experimental projects have been undertaken by voluntary organizations as well as under government auspices. It is felt that work needs to be done in two main directions. Firstly, we must ensure that the experience of innovative projects is widely diffused and made a part of the system. Secondly, there must be an integration of various experiences into an overall strategy of educational development.

It is realized that there should be a constant effort to institutionalize innovations. With this end in view, greater stress is proposed to be laid on dissemination of information, building of trained cadres at grass-roots level, integration of the efforts made by various agencies, networking of institutions, creation of infrastructure for adaptation of innovations to suit local conditions and financial support to institutions to adopt innovative ideas and practices.

An important idea being considered is the identification of specific areas where a total strategy for universalizing elementary education is being implemented. It is being suggested that various institutions concerned with different dimensions of elementary education develop a comprehensive and integrated plan of action and implement it in selected blocks under the control and supervision of the Planning Commission.

Appendix Tables

I. State/Union Territory-wise number of primary and middle schools in India (1970-1971 and 1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Number of Primary Schools*		*Number of Middle Schools*		*Percentage increase in schools during 1970-1971 to 1981-1982*	
	1970-1971	*1981-1982*	*1970-1971*	*1981-1982*	*Primary Schools*	*Middle Schools*
Andhra Pradesh	37,013	40,691	3,123	4,812	9.9	54.1
Assam	17,723	21,801	3,092	4,326	23.1	39.9
Bihar	46,823	51,250	8,133	11,289	9.5	38.8
Gujarat	10,810	11,200	10,545	14,000	3.6	32.8
Haryana	4,204	4,738	760	938	12.7	23.4
Himachal Pradesh	3,768	6,229	742	1,047	65.3	41.1
Jammu & Kashmir	4,872	7,475	1,454	2,058	53.5	41.5
Karnataka	21,717	22,832	10,817	12,343	5.4	14.1
Kerala	6,838	6,811	2,544	2,779	– 1.1	9.2
Madhya Pradesh	36,988	59,487	5,851	10,946	60.8	87.1
Maharashtra	28,533	35,600	16,749	15,540	24.7	–7.2
Manipur	2,472	2,860	384	425	15.7	10.8
Meghalaya	2,528	3,650	211	390	44.4	85.0
Nagaland	833	1,184	310	310	42.1	0.0
Orissa	27,728	32,797	4,193	7,413	18.2	76.8
Punjab	7,258	12,384	1,060	1,410	70.6	33.0
Rajasthan	19,612	23,219	2,035	5,487	18.4	169.6
Sikkim	–	360	–	48	–	–
Tamil Nadu	26,076	27,767	5,894	5,556	6.5	–5.2
Tripura	1,384	1,707	220	300	23.3	36.6
Uttar Pradesh	62,127	71,637	8,787	13,852	15.3	57.6
West Bengal	35,788	44,326	2,959	3,178	23.8	7.4
A & N Islands	127	175	20	34	37.8	70.0
Arunachal Pradesh	503	879	47	120	74.7	155.3
Chandigarh	37	33	16	28	– 8.1	75.0
D & N Haveli	126	121	24	33	– 4.1	37.5
Delhi	1,355	1,739	450	327	28.3	–27.3
Goa, Daman & Diu	765	974	204	150	27.3	–26.4
Lakshadweep	19	18	8	4	– 5.3	–50.0

I (Cont'd). State/Union territory-wise number of primary and middle schools in India (1970-1971 and 1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Number of Primary Schools*		*Number of Middle Schools*		*Percentage increase in schools during 1970-1971 to 1981-1982*	
	1970-1971	*1981-1982*	*1970-1971*	*1981-1982*	*Primary Schools*	*Middle Schools*
Mizoram	–	775*	–	315	–	–
Pondicherry	259	288	81	102	11.2	26.0
Total	408,286	495,007	90,713	119,560	21.2	31.9

* Includes pre-primary schools also

Source: (i) 'A handbook of educational and allied statistics', Ministry of Education & Culture, Government of India, 1983 (For 1970-1971).

(ii) 'Selected educational statistics, 1981-1982', Ministry of Education & Culture, Government of India, 1983 (For 1981-1982).

II. Percentage of rural population served by primary and middle schools/sections (As on 30 September 1978)

State/Union Territory	*Percentage of rural population served by primary schools/sections*		*Percentage of rural population served by middle schools/sections*	
	Within the habitation	*Up to 1.0 km*	*Within the habitation*	*Up to 3.0 km*
Andhra Pradesh	91.84	96.06	36.01	71.16
Assam	81.34	94.21	20.91	78.96
Bihar	77.98	95.54	23.14	84.96
Gujarat	94.96	98.14	71.71	92.50
Haryana	94.07	98.58	46.71	85.21
Himachal Pradesh	38.01	71.54	13.31	71.58
Jammu & Kashmir	74.66	89.94	32.60	83.58
Karnataka	89.17	95.59	51.36	86.29
Kerala	83.35	90.64	59.44	92.48
Madhya Pradesh	77.14	90.17	23.09	63.19

II (Cont'd). Percentage of rural population served by primary and middle schools/sections (As on 30 September 1978)

State/Union Territory	*Percentage of rural population served by primary schools/sections*		*Percentage of rural population served by middle schools/sections*	
	Within the habitation	*Up to 1.0 km*	*Within the habitation*	*Up to 3.0 km*
Maharashtra	90.10	96.97	56.50	87.50
Manipur	92.82	98.09	38.62	76.45
Meghalaya	76.12	88.53	15.72	53.03
Nagaland	98.35	99.49	50.72	71.13
Orissa	76.58	93.95	27.08	80.29
Punjab	97.34	99.72	44.45	91.77
Rajasthan	82.08	88.50	36.82	64.87
Sikkim	42.35	64.34	7.66	42.30
Tamil Nadu	81.74	94.63	29.81	80.57
Tripura	54.42	80.29	19.79	71.98
Uttar Pradesh	52.97	85.84	17.33	73.95
West Bengal	85.07	96.28	25.39	78.71
A & N Islands	70.49	81.86	33.38	55.78
Arunachal Pradesh	55.90	60.69	18.14	28.15
Chandigarh	89.42	100.00	61.42	100.00
Dadra & N. Haveli	45.43	86.99	11.24	68.20
Delhi	85.29	99.75	55.66	99.93
Goa, Daman & Diu	56.82	88.97	20.62	92.67
Lakshadweep	100.00	100.00	99.64	99.64
Mizoram	74.54	74.63	64.32	77.41
Pondicherry	87.72	97.15	53.19	97.41
All-India	78.53	92.82	33.47	78.83

Source: 'Fourth All-India educational Survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982.

III. Enrolment in Classes I-V (1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	3,202,739	2,263,336	5,466,075
Assam	1,001,783	758,823	1,760,606
Bihar	4,701,311	1,985,473	6,686,784
Gujarat	2,650,400	1,760,900	4,411,300
Haryana	852,458	447,816	1,300,274
Himachal Pradesh	319,803	245,945	565,748
Jammu & Kashmir	363,120	205,151	568,271
Karnataka	2,419,936	1,868,153	4,288,089
Kerala	1,658,763	1,562,923	3,221,686
Madhya Pradesh	3,070,379	1,519,353	4,589,732
Maharashtra	4,760,000	3,650,000	8,410,000
Manipur	118,350	94,550	212,900
Meghalaya	106,000	97,000	203,000
Nagaland	69,994	53,671	123,665
Orissa	1,719,000	1,115,000	2,834,000
Punjab	1,104,564	903,401	2,007,965
Rajasthan	2,290,836	763,849	3,054,685
Sikkim	26,147	18,557	44,704
Tamil Nadu	3,471,125	2,910,132	6,381,257
Tripura	170,531	126,079	296,610
Uttar Pradesh	6,577,120	3,288,000	9,865,120
West Bengal	3,727,295	2,445,606	6,172,901
A & N Islands	14,971	12,636	27,607
Arunachai Pradesh	43,530	23,006	66,536
Chandigarh	2,662	2,209	4,871
D & N Haveli	8,694	5,613	14,307
Delhi	365,970	319,630	685,600
Goa, Daman & Diu	71,673	61,950	133,623
Lakshadweep	3,937	3,335	7,272
Mizoram	40,704	38,223	78,927*
Pondicherry	42,832	36,323	79,155
Total:	44,976,627	28,586,643	73,563,270

* Includes enrolment of pre-primary schools also

Source: 'Selected Educational Statistics, 1981-82', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India.

III (Cont'd). Enrolment ratio in Classes I-V
(1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Enrolment Ratio*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	98.8	74.4	87.0
Assam	63.8	52.5	58.4
Bihar	103.3	46.5	75.8
Gujarat	124.9	88.6	107.4
Haryana	102.0	57.4	80.5
Himachal Pradesh	141.1	97.6	118.2
Jammu & Kashmir	105.5	55.4	79.5
Karnataka	102.2	84.0	93.4
Kerala	100.7	100.5	100.6
Madhya Pradesh	77.3	41.3	59.9
Maharashtra	128.5	104.4	116.8
Manipur	126.3	99.1	112.6
Meghalaya	121.1	109.9	115.5
Nagaland	163.2	128.4	146.0
Orissa	98.9	68.7	84.4
Punjab	115.2	101.4	108.6
Rajasthan	94.3	33.6	64.9
Sikkim	164.4	118.9	141.9
Tamil Nadu	125.9	112.4	119.3
Tripura	120.3	87.5	103.8
Uttar Pradesh	92.5	49.0	71.4
West Bengal	94.6	66.1	80.8
A & N Islands	133.7	110.8	122.2
Arunachal Pradesh	114.8	62.3	88.9
Chandigarh	10.3	8.5	9.4
D & N Haveli	155.3	96.8	125.5
Delhi	109.6	92.4	100.9
Goa, Daman & Diu	112.3	97.3	104.9
Lakshadweep	187.5	151.6	169.1
Mizoram	*	*	*
Pondicherry	124.5	103.8	114.1
All-India	99.4	66.9	83.7

Source: 'Selected educational statistics 1981-82,' Ministry of Education & Culture, Government of India, 1983.

IV. Enrolment in Classes VI-VIII (1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	623,897	331,484	955,381
Assam	439,102	277,858	716,960
Bihar	1,041,010	282,523	1,323,533
Gujarat	746,700	439,800	1,186,500
Haryana	372,620	132,502	505,122
Himachal Pradesh	145,887	72,663	218,550
Jammu & Kashmir	120,828	56,472	177,300
Karnataka	663,194	387,489	1,050,683
Kerala	846,933	778,854	1,625,787
Madhya Pradesh	1,200,678	427,648	1,628,326
Maharashtra	1,500,000	860,000	2,360,000
Manipur	32,530	20,970	53,500
Meghalaya	21,500	19,000	40,500
Nagaland	29,788	23,509	53,297
Orissa	419,000	209,000	628,000
Punjab	419,943	273,891	693,834
Rajasthan	666,771	161,429	828,200
Sikkim	5,593	3,006	8,599
Tamil Nadu	1,202,886	761,200	1,964,086
Tripura	38,197	26,736	64,933
Uttar Pradesh	2,256,010	822,104	3,078,114
West Bengal	875,837	498,357	1,374,194
Adaman Nicolar Islands	5,086	3.456	8,542
Arunachal Pradesh	6,960	3,064	10,024
Chandigarh 1	2,499	2,041	4,540
D.N. Haveli	1,426	736	2,162
Delhi	207,000	147,000	354,000
Goa, Daman & Diu	39,743	31,507	71,250
Lakshadweep	1,571	1,097	2,668
Mizoram	15,833	14,385	30,218
Pondicherry	22,184	14,491	36,675
Total:	13,971,206	7,084,272	1,055,478

Source: 'Selected educational statistics 1981-1982', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983.

IV (Cont'd) Enrolment ratio in Classes VI-VIII (1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Enrolment Ratio*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	31.3	17.4	24.5
Assam	59.3	39.9	48.6
Bihar	40.5	11.7	26.5
Gujarat	61.4	38.5	50.3
Haryana	70.7	28.0	50.5
Himachal Pradesh	105.7	48.9	76.3
Jammu & Kashmir	59.9	27.4	43.5
Karnataka	48.0	29.9	39.3
Kerala	89.3	85.6	87.5
Madhya Pradesh	54.3	20.7	38.1
Maharashtra	64.5	38.4	51.7
Manipur	66.6	38.9	52.1
Meghalaya	49.4	40.3	44.6
Nagaland	125.2	97.5	111.3
Orissa	43.7	22.7	33.4
Punjab	69.9	51.0	61.0
Rajasthan	50.3	12.9	32.2
Sikkim	60.8	32.3	46.5
Tamil Nadu	68.5	46.3	57.8
Tripura	51.9	30.9	40.6
Uttar Pradesh	56.1	21.8	39.5
West Bengal	41.8	24.2	33.1
A & N Islands	89.2	54.0	70.6
Arunachal Pradesh	39.3	16.9	28.0
Chandigarh	15.4	13.5	14.5
D & N Haveli	44.6	21.0	32.3
Delhi	97.7	71.4	84.7
Goa, Daman & Diu	96.2	72.6	84.1
Lakshadweep	130.9	82.4	106.7
Mizoram	*	*	*
Pondicherry	103.2	64.9	83.7
All-India	54.2	29.1	41.9

Source: 'Selected educational statistics 1981-1982', Ministry of Education & Culture, Government of India, 1983.

V. Enrolment (in Classes I-V) as percentage of population in the age group 6-below 11 years in rural areas in selected states. (As on 30 September 1978)

State		*Highest district*				*Lowest district*			
	State average	*Name*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*	*Name*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	79.97	Nellore	111.47	92.89	102.68	Adilabad	66.86	25.29	45.82
Assam	80.71	N.C. Hills	124.55	87.31	106.32	Darrang	76.13	54.02	65.31
Bihar	70.53	Nalanda	118.55	61.18	91.18	West Champaran	65.95	20.02	43.92
Jammu & Kashmir	61.61	Jammu	91.12	76.01	83.98	Srinagar	61.60	28.38	45.86
Madhya Pradesh	56.99	Betul	97.91	58.37	78.52	Jhabua	57.01	20.37	39.22
Orissa	85.04	Balasore	139.15	101.78	121.34	Kalahandi	95.37	41.78	69.55
Rajasthan	59.74	Kota	104.87	45.42	80.63	Bikaner	67.34	22.84	47.57
Uttar Pradesh	72.87	Dehradun	124.40	106.65	116.50	Rampur	64.72	20.39	44.26
West Bengal	84.62	Howrah	112.49	99.36	106.32	Murshidabad	75.91	53.58	64.51

Source: States Tables, 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research & Training, New Delhi, 1978.

Note: Gross enrolment ratio at the primary stage (Classes I-V) 79.22 for the country in 1978.

V. (Cont'd). Enrolment (in Classes VI-VIII) as percentage of population in the Age-Group 11 to below 14 years in rural areas in selected states (As on 30 September 1978)

State		*Highest district*				*Lowest district*			
	State average	*Name*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*	*Name*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	19.68	Krishna	33.26	20.69	27.09	Adilabad	17.09	7.57	12.45
Assam	36.79	Sibsagar	58.84	46.96	53.11	Karbi Anglong	31.09	14.91	22.49
Bihar	18.54	Dhanbad	52.97	6.36	30.44	Girdih	20.23	2.12	11.63
Jammu & Kashmir	32.22	Jammu	64.07	34.23	49.89	Srinagar	36.03	9.64	23.84
Madhya Pradesh	22.13	Bhind	67.03	9.64	39.42	Jhabua	14.72	3.67	9.40
Orissa	25.41	Cuttack	52.97	29.03	41.54	Karaput	5.46	3.08	4.69
Rajasthan	23.61	Sikar	63.77	15.18	37.87	Bikaner	20.80	4.94	14.04
Uttar Pradesh	23.32	Uttarkashi	101.25	16.54	62.49	Barabanki	27.23	3.85	16.37
West Bengal	27.59	Cooch Behar	65.64	29.35	47.66	Jalpaiguri	19.22	12.58	15.99

Source: State Tables, 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research & Training, New Delhi, 1978.

Note: Gross enrolment ratio at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII) 31.23 for the country in 1978.

VI. Student flow in classes I-VIII and retention rates (1960-1961 to 1978-1979)

	Number of Students					
Years	*Class I*		*Class V*		*Class VIII*	
	Total	*Girls*	*Total*	*Girls*	*Total*	*Girls*
1960-1961	13,391,347 (100.0)	4,680,909 (100.0)	–	–	–	–
1961-1962	15,746,164 (100.0)	5,605,962 (100.0)	–	–	–	–
1962-1963	16,404,417 (100.0)	6,023,285 (100.0)	–	–	–	–
1963-1964	16,905,528 (100.0)	6,883,003 (100.0)	–	–	–	–
1964-1965	18,240,602 (100.0)	6,948,612 (100.0)	4,964,247 (37.1)	1,524,406 (32.6)	–	–
1965-1966	18,883,970 (100.0)	7,309,790 (100.0)	5,381,360 (34.2)	1,683,795 (34.2)	–	–
1966-1967	19,533,259 (100.0)	7,511,283 (100.0)	5,710,325 (34.8)	1,827,741 (38.3)	–	–
1967-1968	19,750,974 (100.0)	7,637,373 (100.0)	5,920,639 (35.0)	1,946,193 (31.0)	3,244,645 (24.4)	863,354 (18.4)
1968-1969	19,835,890 (100.0)	7,675,708 (100.0)	6,042,209 (31.1)	2,011,469 (28.9)	3,459,961 (22.0)	935,647 (16.4)
1969-1970	19,942,055 (100.0)	7,778,770 (100.0)	6,249,417 (33.1)	2,100,326 (28.7)	3,616,774 (22.1)	989,776 (16.4)

VI. (Cont'd) Student flow in classes I-VIII and retention rates (1960-1961 to 1978-1979)

Years	*Number of Students*					
	Class I		*Class V*		*Class VIII*	
	Total	*Girls*	*Total*	*Girls*	*Total*	*Girls*
1970-1971	20,438,788 (100.0)	7,924,508 (100.0)	6,455,109 (33.0)	2,184,437 (29.1)	2,743,951 (22.1)	1,042,492 (16.6)
1971-1972	21,118,992 (100.0)	8,213,094 (100.0)	6,623,731 (33.5)	2,265,014 (29.7)	3,835,751 (21.0)	1,090,540 (15.7)
1972-1973	22,183,109 (100.0)	8,710,611 (100.0)	6,949,504 (35.0)	2,406,716 (31.3)	3,155,524 (20.9)	1,156,880 (15.8)
1973-1974	21,394,983	8,472,161	6,708,033	2,322,008	3,784,932	1,113,713
1974-1975	21,975,542 (100.0)	8,669,345 (100.0)	7,515,743 (36.8)	2,636,002 (33.3)	4,914,680 (21.3)	1,245,816 (16.3)
1975-1976	21,987,533 (100.0)	8,712,864 (100.0)	7,848,656 (37.2)	2,777,442 (33.8)	4,438,769 (22.4)	1,320,519 (17.2)
1976-1977	27,224,536 (100.0)	9,185,204 (100.0)	8,187,777 (36.9)	1,891,726 (33.2)	4,554,847 (22.8)	1,385,322 (17.8)
1977-1978	21,127,331 (100.0)	8,428,795 (100.0)	8,374,954 (39.6)	2,952,175 (35.0)	4,721,813 (22.0)	1,453,672 (17.2)
1978-1979	21,425,731 (100.0)	8,668,741 (100.0)	8,476,227 (39.6)	3,011,343 (34.7)	4,988,525 (23.3)	1,563,564 (18.0)

Source: *A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics.* Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983. 'Third All India Educational Survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1977.

Note: Figures in brackets indicate the percentage of enrolment in different grades to total enrolment in Grade I.

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

INDONESIA

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Preface

Universalization of primary education (UPE) is one of the major priority goals of countries in the region of Asia and the Pacific. The developing countries in particular, are now vigorously engaged in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans and programmes aimed at making adequate and suitable opportunities for primary education available as soon as possible for all children and young people.

In 1983, as part of a major project under the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) on the Universalization of Education, 12 countries in the region undertook national studies. The national studies were conducted to analyse the stage reached by the countries in UPE, and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level; to review significant new and current developments in programmes and projects which the countries have undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education; and to contribute to achieving the target of primary education for all children. The studies were conducted by national institutes and professional groups under the guidance of high level committees of the Ministries of Education in the respective countries.

On completion of the national studies, a Regional Review Meeting was held in November 1983 which undertook an in-depth analysis of the methodologies of the national studies and examined their findings. The meeting also made suggestions for improving and updating the national studies tabled for review.

Following the recommendations of the review meeting, study teams in the participating countries have revised and updated the national studies. The present publication is an outcome of the collaborative and co-operative efforts of the member countries in understanding the progress made in the universalization of primary education, the nature and extent of problems and issues and their implications for achieving UPE in the region before the end of this century.

This series which provides a comparative view of the position of and progress made in UPE has been published with the view that the countries in the region, in their bid to step up measures for UPE, will find the information, experiences and conclusions useful in pursuing the goal of 'education for all' with a new vigor by drawing on the experiences of other countries with the same goals and objectives.

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Chapter One

A PICTURE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN INDONESIA

Historical background of educational development

Before the seventeenth Century education in Indonesia along with the development of its era, was of religious character. There was a time that it was based on Hinduism, a time that it was based on the Moslem religion, and a time of a mixture of Moslem and Christian religions. Below is a description of education in Indonesia from era to era.

The Dutch colonial era (until 1942). Education in Indonesia in the form of general education schools, as found nowadays, has existed since 1605.[1]

These were Christian-oriented private, general schools, and served only the European community. Not until 1817, after the Dutch ruled Indonesia again, was the first public primary school in Jakarta (Batavia) established, specially for European children.[2] The primary schools for the indigenous children were not established until 1848, when there were 20 schools.[3]

By 1940 there were a variety of primary schools which was unfortunate as it created walls separating one school from the other. The types of primary schools and normal schools existing at that time were:

1. *Village school* with a three year programme. The medium of instruction was the local dialect, and the subjects taught were the 3Rs. Village schools usually had only two teachers and two classrooms.

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[1] Ministry of Education and Culture. Indonesia Education from era, BP3K ,page 44-45

[2] Ibid, page 50

[3] Ibid, page 51

2. *Second indigenous schools* with a five-year programme. Grades I, II and III followed the same curriculum as that of the village schools, while in grades IV and V Malay, history, geography, biology and simple physics were taught.

3. *Continuation school* with a two-year programme after village school. The education programme was the same as in grades IV and V of the second indigenous school.

4. *Dutch indigenous primary school (HIS)* with a seven-year programme. After the second grade the medium of instruction was Dutch. The education programme was the same as that of the second indigenous school, but extended and taught in Dutch. Only selected indigenous children were admitted to this school. The indigenous primary schools were established in big cities and differed in name according to the school's location.

In Java, for instance, they were called the Dutch Javanese Schools, and in Kalimantan the Dutch Dayak Schools.

5. *Dutch Chinese primary school (HCS)* This was a primary school for Chinese citizens. The education programme, length of study, and medium of instruction were the same as the Dutch indigenous schools but the medium of instruction was Dutch starting from grade I.

6. *Dutch Arabic primary school (HAS)* This school was the same as the Dutch Chinese Primary School but for Arab citizens.

7. *European primary school* with a seven-year study programme. This school was meant for European children, especially Dutch children. Indigenous children with certain qualifications were also admitted.

8. *Link school 'A'* with five-year study after the village school or grade III of the second indigenous school. This school was meant as a link between Malay medium schools and Dutch medium schools. The stress was on mastering the Dutch language and adjustment of the education programmes of the second indigenous school and the Dutch indigenous schools.

9. *Link school 'B'* with a four-year programme after the second indigenous school or the continuation school. The objective of this school was the same as that of Link School 'A'.

Teacher training schools were also highly specialized in that entrants came from a particular school programme and upon graduation could generally only return to teach in the same kind of school. (Figure 1).

The Japanese occupation era (1942-1945) Several important changes were made in the development of education in Indonesia during the Japanese occupation. With the support of prominent Indonesian educators, the Japanese government decided to:

a) Eliminate the existing various primary schools and make them into six-year and three-year primary schools;

b) Use Indonesian as the medium of language for all schools;

c) Discard all Dutch textbooks and translate them into Indonesian; and

d) Replace Dutch language lessons with Japanese language lessons starting in grade I of primary school.

With the simplification of primary schools, the teacher's schools consequently experienced changes too. There were only three types of teacher's schools then:

a) The two-year teacher school;

b) The four-year teacher school; and

c) The six-year teacher school.

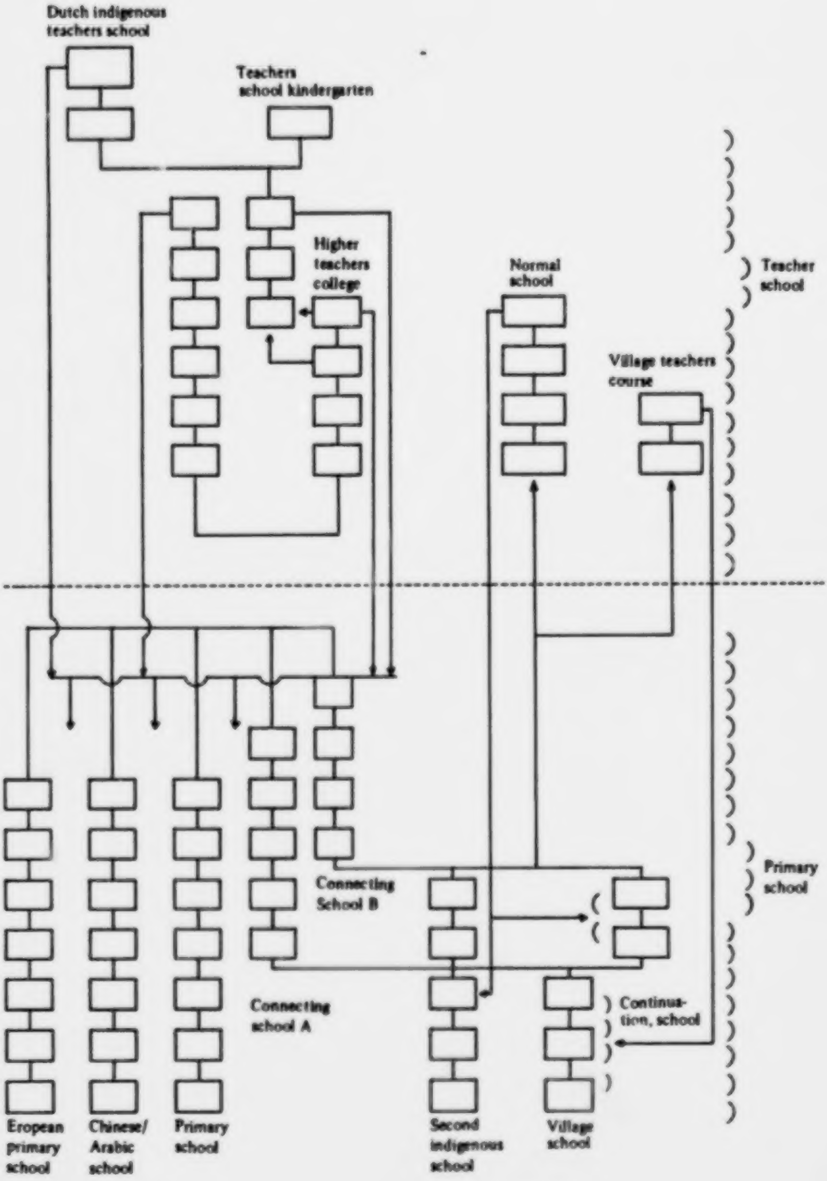
Thus it can be said that the development of primary education in the Japanese era was marked by uniformity and simplification and could be considered as the starting point of national development of education in the years to come.

The era of Independence (1945-present day). This era has been marked by the following efforts:

1. Democratization in education by giving all children the same opportunity for education;

2. Increasing the quality of education among others by gradually making the three-year study primary schools into six-year primary schools; and

Figure 1. School system of primary and teacher training schools before 1942


Dutch indigenous teachers school
Teachers school kindergarten
Higher teachers college
Normal school
Teacher school
Village teachers course
Primary school
Connecting School B
Connecting school A
Continuation, school
Eropean primary school
Chinese/ Arabic school
Primary school
Second indigenous school
Village school

3. Since 1965 attempts have been made to make education compulsory for the 6-12 age group. Despite many difficulties, due to lack of teachers, schools and facilities the improvements were striking. Table 1 shows the development of primary education from 1940 to 1961.

Table 1. Development of primary schools (1940-1961)

Year	*Number*			*Era*
	Schools	*Teachers*	*Students*	
1940/1941	17,848	45,415	2,259,245	Dutch
1944/1945	15,096	36,287	2,513,410	Japanese
1960/1961	37,673	230,633	8,990,875	Indonesian

The increase of students in 1960/1961 was due to the introduction of a preparatory course for compulsory education, a form of primary education which had the direct support of the people themselves. It was a realization of co-operation between society, parents and government in organizing primary education and later developed into regular Primary Schools.

The few teachers schools in 1940 were mostly four-year teacher's training schools and it was not until 1947 that the six-year teacher's training schools were established in Purworkerto, Yogyakarta and Surakarta. To overcome the shortage of teachers in implementing compulsory education an institute called Course for Teachers of the Course Introducing Compulsory Education (KPKPKB) was established in the 1950s in each district. It was a four-year study programme after primary school. These schools and courses have now been incorporated in the Teacher Training Schools.

In the years 1973-1974 to 1983-1984, 73,620 primary school units were built, and 669,400 teachers appointed while 600 million textbooks were printed.

How much attention the Indonesian nation has given to provide facilities for primary education is shown in Table 2.

Facilities in the provinces covered the addition of classrooms, housing for school principals and school guards, and housing for

Table 2. Number of facilities provided through the aid programme for the development of primary schools (1973-1974 to 1983-1984)

Component	*Sub-component*	*Total*
New primary school building	62,550 units (a' 6 sites) 10,500 units (a' 3 sites) 570 units multistoried	73,620 units
Teacher promotion	508,460 Classroom teachers 121,840 Teachers of religion 37,300 Teachers of sports 1,800 Primary school teachers for exceptional children	669,620 persons
Equipments/books	446,500.000 textbooks 148,700,000 reading books	595,200,000 exemplars

teachers, renovation of schools, and the provision of sports articles. In this way the participation of primary school children increased strikingly from only 60 per cent in 1970 to 94 per cent in 1983-1984. In addition to the traditional primary education for the 7-12 year age group there was the Madrasah Ibtidaiyah, a Moslem religion-oriented school of 6-7 years of education. Another attempt to give education to those unable to attend school was the Learning while Working Project.

Basic direction and policy

The national objectives stipulated in the preamble of the 1945 Constitution to 'protect the entire Indonesian nation and the country of Indonesia and to enhance national welfare, to sharpen the minds of the people and participate in the implementation of world order based on freedom, everlasting peace and social justice' is to be achieved through development in all parts of the people's lives.

In Chapter XIII, Article 31 of the 1945 Constitution it is stipulated that each citizen has the right to enjoy education.

Government Regulation No. 65, year 1951 gives Governors/ Provincial Governments the authority to organize primary schools which among others means the establishment of schools, provision of school buildings, supply of materials, learning materials, subsidy to Private Primary Schools and management of teachers and school principals.

Presidential Decree No. 34 year 1972 and Presidential Instruction No. 15 year 1974 put the main responsibility of developing and organizing education in Indonesia upon the Department of Education and Culture.

The People's Assembly in the Broad Outlines of the State Policy No. IV/MPR/1873, No. IV/MPR/1978, and No. II/MPR/1983 gives directions for education development for periods of five years to be adjusted to the development of the lives of the Indonesian nation and people.

Decree No. II/MPR/1983 on primary education states among others that:

1. The stress of educational development is on the enhancement of the quality and expansion of primary education in the framework of realising and making the implementation of compulsory education more effective and to expand opportunities to education up to secondary education;
2. In the framework of further expanding opportunities to education facilities should be provided to enrol all school-age children, including those of low-income families, the handicapped, or those who live in such remote areas that they cannot make use of available facilities, so that they too can get education and obtain skill.

Special attention is also given to the gifted children so that they can develop their potentials optimally. To encourage expansion of learning opportunities a Joint Decree of the Minister on Internal Affairs, the Minister of Education and Culture, and the Minister of Finance of the Republic of Indonesia in 1977 exempted schools from fees and guaranteed the provision of subsidies by the Central Government. Subsidies are used for the implementation of school lessons; school administration and maintenance; school employee's welfare; school's sports and arts week; education report books; organization of end of school evaluation and supply of end of school certificate; supervision of management and reports; and data collection.

General organization of the school system

According to Education Law No. 12 year 1954 the school system follows 5 levels (Figure 2):

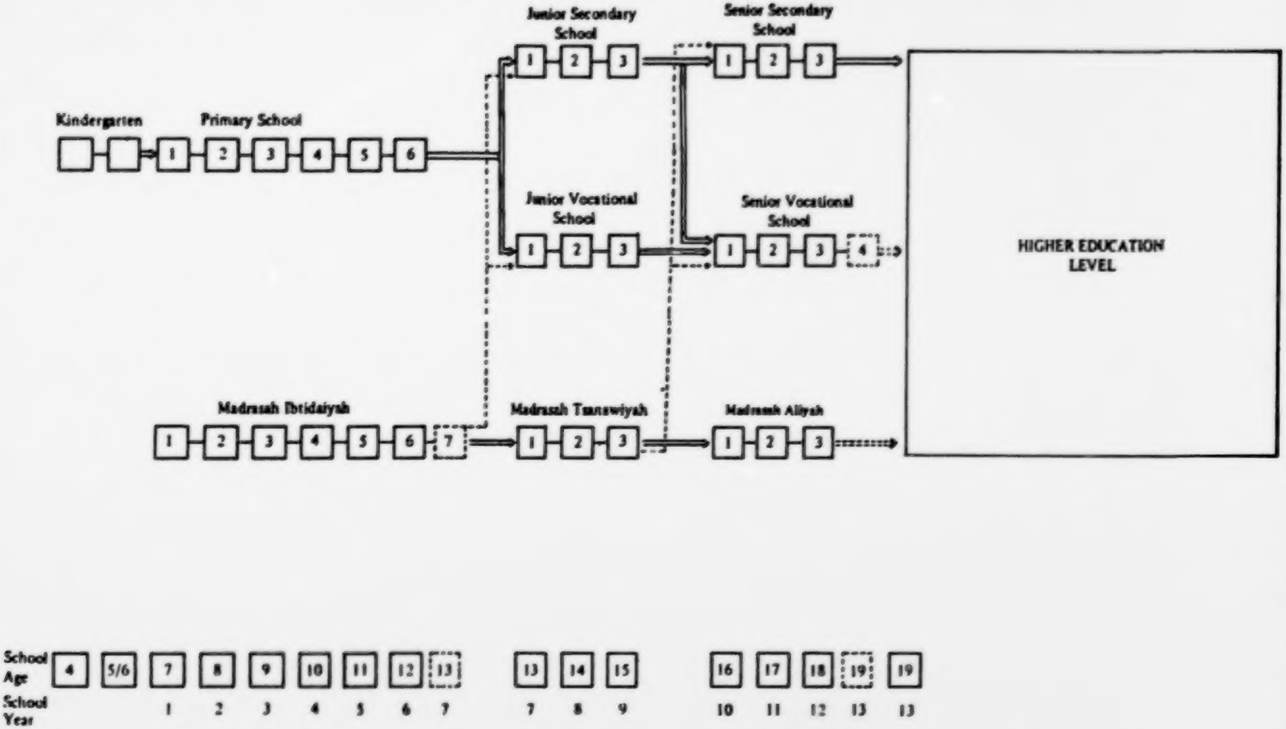
1. Pre-school (one or two years for ages 4-6);
2. Primary school (six years for ages 7-12);
3. Junior High School (three years). This school is divided into General Junior High School and Vocational Junior High School, which is again divided into:
    - a) Economics Junior High School,
    - b) Home Economics Junior High School, and
    - c) Public Technical School;
4. Senior Secondary School (three or four years). This School is divided into General Senior High School (SMA) and Vocational Senior High School, which is again divided into: (a) Economics Senior High School, (b) Feeder Economics Senior High School, (c) Home Economics High School, (d) Home Technical High School, (e) Secondary Technical School, (f) Secondary Technical Development School, (g) Aviation Technical Secondary School, (h) Shipping Technical Secondary School, (i) Graphic Technical Secondary School, (j) Agriculture Technical Secondary School, (k) Arts Secondary School, (l) Music Secondary School, (m) Indonesian Music Secondary School, (n) Crafts Industrial Secondary School, (o) Social Works Secondary School, (p) Teacher Education School, (q) Physical Education Teacher School, (r) Special Education Teacher's School, and (s) Junior Secondary Teacher Training School.

Organizational structure – Ministry of Education and Culture

In line with the government administration system in general, the Ministry of Education and Culture is the main authority in the field of education and culture with a central level organization structure and vertical offices organization structure in the region, covering the provincial, district/autonomous, and sub-district levels.

The Ministry of Education and Culture is headed by a Minister who is directly responsible to the President. In implementing his

Figure 2. Formal school system in Indonesia


Kindergarten
Primary School
1 2 3 4 5 6
Junior Secondary School
1 2 3
Senior Secondary School
1 2 3
Junior Vocational School
1 2 3
Senior Vocational School
1 2 3 4
HIGHER EDUCATION LEVEL
Madrasah Ibtidaiyah
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Madrasah Tsanawiyah
1 2 3
Madrasah Aliyah
1 2 3
School Age
4 5/6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 19
School Year
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 13

task the Minister is assisted by a staff of experts who manage and study problems, according to their fields, on the Minister's instruction.

The organizational structure of the Ministry of Education and Culture consists of the Minister; the Secretariat General; the executive boards which are the Directorate General of Primary and Secondary Education; Directorate General of Higher Education; the Directorate General of Out-of-School, Youth and Sports and the Directorate General of Culture; and the supervisory board, which is the Inspectorate General. In addition there is the Office of Educational and Cultural Research and Development and the Centres which are directly responsible to the Minister and carry out certain specific tasks.

The functions of the Directorates General are to (1) formulate technical policies, according to the policy of the Ministry of Education and Culture and based on current regulations; (2) carry out counselling in their respective fields according to their main task and based on the current regulations; (3) organize technical security and supervision of the implementation of tasks by the directorates general.

The Secretariat General organizes administrative services and assistance including planning, organization, administration, recruitment, and management of budget and equipment to serve all units at all levels down to the regional levels.

The office of Educational and Cultural Research and Development organizes and co-ordinates education and culture in the framework of formulating policies, developing concepts and long-term planning as well as supervising all research and development units within the Ministry of Education and Culture; and supervises research and development units within the Ministry of Education and Culture based on the decisions made by the body which is functionally responsible for the implementation of supervision of research and development.

The main task of the Inspectorate General is to control the implementation of tasks of all units within the Ministry of Education and Culture so that they are done according to plan and the current regulations. In implementing this task the Inspectorate General has the function to (1) inspect each unit or office within the Ministry of Education and Culture with regard to general administration, financial administration, physical results, implementation of development projects, and others; (2) test and evaluate the result of periodic reports or once in a while that of each unit/office within the Ministry of Education and Culture following the Minister's directions; and (3) verify reports of complaints about constraints, deviations, or misuses in the administrative and financial fields by units or office within the Ministry.

In addition there are the Co-ordinators of Private Higher Education in the provinces who have the task to promote and develop Private Higher Education operationally in a region with the technical academic help of the public Universities/Institutes (Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture No. 062/0/1982).

At the provincial level the Regional Office of Education and Culture carries out educational tasks and functions. There are also District offices and Sub-District Offices of the Ministry of Education and Culture. The Head of the Provincial Office is responsible to the Minister. The policies of the Minister and the technical policies of the Directors General are passed on to the region through the Head of the Provincial Office who passes them on to the District Office and down to the Sub-District Office. The Head of the Sub-District Office is responsible to the Head of the District Office, while the Head of the District Office, Division Heads, Section Heads and other officials of the same level are responsible to the Head of the Provincial Office. Based on the organizational structure there are: seven main units with 54 echelon II officials at the Central level, 43 Universities/Institutes, nine Private Higher Education Co-ordinators, six Academies, 27 Provincial Offices, 277 District Offices, and 2,945 Sub-District Offices.

In addition, there are 123,000 technical implementation units consisting of 105,485 public and private primary schools as well as the National Library, regional libraries, radio media production units, an archeological research unit, museums, cultural parks, historical and ancient remnants units, units for the study of national history and values, and learning activities development units. There are also teacher education schools, secondary schools, vocational schools, training kindergartens, try-out primary schools, special schools and private kindergartens.

Primary school management

The government offices that are directly or indirectly responsible for the primary school management and supervision (Primary School and Madrasah Ibtidaiyah) are:

a) Ministry of Education and Culture, Directorate of Primary Education;

b) Ministry of Internal Affairs, Directorate General of General Administration and the Directorate General of Regional Development which is responsible for giving guidance and assistance to the organization of Primary School by the Regional Governments based on Government Regulation No. 65 year 1951, and the development of primary school buildings;

c) Ministry of Religious Affairs, Directorate General of Supervision of Moslem Religion Institute, which is in charge of education at Moslem schools, in particular the Madrasah Ibtidaiyah;

d) Ministry of Finance, Directorate General of Budgeting which is in charge of financing of the organization of primary school, in particular the salaries of primary school teachers and subsidies and financial assistance; and

e) National Development Planning Board which is in charge of co-ordinating the planning of primary schools based on Presidential Instructions.

At the provincial level, the government offices responsible for the management and supervision of primary education are:

a) The Provincial Office of Education and Culture, Primary Education and Teacher Training Division which supervises primary schools in terms of planning, management and control, of the curriculum, teaching-learning methods, determining the textbooks, modification of teachers, standardization of teaching-learning materials, and technical considerations for the provision of subsidies to private primary schools.

b) The Provincial Office of Education (Kantor Dinas) which organizes primary schools including their construction, rehabilitation and maintenance of the buildings, provision of school furniture and other school equipment, supply of textbooks, management, teachers and subsidy to private primary school teachers.

c) The Provincial Office of the Ministry of Religion, Section of the Moslem Religion Teachers School which supervises and manages education at Moslem schools especially Madrasah Ibtidaiyah.

Co-ordination among the three Government instances at provincial level is apparent in the planning of allocation for the construction and rehabilitation of primary school buildings and of the Madrasah Ibtidaiyah Schools buildings.

Co-ordination between the Provincial Office of Education and Culture (KANWIL) and the Provincial Office of Education (KANTOR DINAS) is carried out in the organization of primary schools including providing subsidies for report books, STTB, management and data collection as well as for the promotion of primary school teachers:

At the district/municipality levels, the government offices in charge of primary education (primary schools and Madrasah Ibtidaiyah) are:

a) The District/Municipality Office of the Minister of Education and Culture, Primary School Section which supervises and manages primary schools;

b) The District/Municipality Office of the Minister of Internal Affairs which organizes primary schools;

c) The District/Municipality Office of Religion, Moslem School Section which supervises and manages education at the Moslem Schools, especially Madrasah Ibtidaiyah.

Teaching staff at primary schools

With the discontinuation of the Normal School in 1961 the Teacher Education School became the only institute for primary school teachers training. In addition to the teachers for Bahasa Indonesia, moral education, mathematics, science, social studies, skills and arts, there were teachers appointed for religion, and health and physical education. Religion teachers were graduates from the Religion Teachers Training managed by the Ministry of Religion, while the teachers for health and physical education were graduates from the Physical Education Teachers School, established in 1977.

Basically the number of graduates should meet the need for primary school teachers. During Repelita III (The Third 5-year Plan, 1979-1984) 105,000 primary school teachers, 58,000 sports/ health teachers should have graduated. The Teacher Education School met the target while the Physical Education Teachers School produced only 12,000 teachers, so that crash programmes had to be mounted.

Nationally the required provision of primary school teachers was met but there was no equal distribution of teachers to each province. One province had a surplus of teachers while other provinces had a shortage.

By Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture No. 0185/1976 of 24 July 1976, a Teacher Education School curriculum was produced on a national basis to be used by private as well as public schools. In-service training has been a continual process since the 1950s and teachers are still being given in-service training through projects such as the teacher Education Development Project.

Educational supervision system

To provide equal and better education the government has during Repelita I (1969-1974) to Repelita III organized various activities, such as curriculum revision, construction of schools, supply of books and teaching materials as well as in service training for teachers.

As a follow-up of these activities a monitoring and supervision system was needed to collect data and information for further planning and continuous counselling in the field or at school level; educative (administrative and technical) and non-educative (facilities and infrastructure).

The management of primary school education is the joint responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Ministry of Religion and the Ministry of Internal Affairs. This counselling in the field is also carried out by these three parties as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Management of supervision at primary school

Aspect	*Educational structure*		*Non-educational structure*
Organiser	General Education Administrative/Technical	Religious Education	Facilities, Man, Money Material
Central Level	Department of Education and Culture, Dit General of Primary and Secondary Education.	Department of Religious Affairs c.q. Dit General of Islamic Institution Development.	Department of Affairs c.q. – Dit General of General Administration and Regional Autonomy. – Dit General of Regional Autonomy.
Provincial Level	Head of Provincial Office, Department of Education and Culture – Head of Kindergarten – Head of Curriculum Section.	Head of Provincial Office, Department of Religious Affairs c.q. Head Religion Education in General School Sector.	Governor c.q. Head of Educational Office.
District Level	Head of District Office, Department of Education and Culture, Head of Primary Education Section	Head of District Office, Department of Religious Affairs c.q. Head of Religious Education in General School Section.	Head of Educational Office.
Sub-District Level	Head of Sub-District Office, Department of Education and Culture, Kindergarten/Primary School Supervisor.	Religious Education Supervisor.	Head of Educational Office.
School	Headmaster		

Within the Ministry of Education and Culture, supervision and monitoring is done by the School Supervisor for Kindergarten and Primary Schools. Daily supervision of teachers is done by the school principals. Inspectors and supervisors are expected to be 20 days in school and 10 days in the office every month.

For this purpose the 1.20 ratio was changed to 1.15 in 1975 so that each school can be visited by a supervisor at least once a month. This helps make supervision more effective. Although actual supervision by inspectors, supervisors and school principals should be both technical educative (professional) and administrative, too much stress is given on the administrative aspect because:

a) There are not enough contact hours between supervisors and teachers; and

b) Inspectors/supervisors/school principals cannot give the required professional guidance.

To overcome this problem in-service training is needed to increase the quality of the teaching-learning process in school.

Supply of textbooks and teaching materials

Supply of textbooks. Before 1959 the supply of textbooks was based on an evaluation of books available in the market, by a team from the Ministry of Education and Culture. The books evaluated were in accordance with the curriculum which the team recommended for schools.

Since 1969 four textbooks have been written: Bahasa Indonesia, social studies, mathematics and science, followed by textbooks pancasila education. These textbooks were written by experts in their respective fields together with experienced fieldworkers. After a try-out in four provinces the textbooks were revised and printed so that each child would get one textbook.

The government has launched a 10-year programme so that primary school pupils will get four kinds of the most essential textbooks: Bahasa Indonesia (grades I-IV), mathematics (grades I-VI), social studies (grades III-VI), physics (grades IV-VI), and pancasila moral education (grades I-VI). Twenty-seven million textbooks were printed and distributed in 1972 and another 138 million books were made available between 1973 and 1981. The Government has succeeded in supplying textbooks and reference books (for children) to be lent to the children free of charge.

Packet A of the Working and Learning Project is one form of out-of-school education using a learning system development which has a student and community based approach.

To implement this programme, learning groups were formed and learning centres provided to give them the opportunity to take an active role by using Packet A and modules. There are modules for pancasila moral education, Bahasa Indonesia, mathematics, physics and social studies.

For special schools materials were made available in the form of teacher's guides and student's books, each according to the child's type of handicap. The books were distributed to the regions through the Provincial Office of the Department of Education and Culture, or through the District/Municipality Office of the Department of Education and Culture depending on the feasibility of communication. From the District Office the books are sent to the Sub-District Offices and then to the schools where they become school property and are lent to the pupils.

The government has given the supply of these five types of textbooks the highest priority. Books for other subjects are given to the private sector. The Government evaluates the textbooks, and those considered suitable are listed and the lists are sent to the schools. The school principals then select which books the pupils should buy. In the purchase of books, the Branch Office for Educational Organization plays an important role, especially from the financial point of view.

Supply of reference/library books. Before 1969 the supply of reference/library books was left to the respective schools. Since 1973 this has been done by Presidential Instruction (Inpres). Through Inpres each school gets 100 titles. In the years that follow the titles are increased to 200. The texts of these books are written by the people and then published by private publishers. Books from private publishers are evaluated by the evaluation team of the Ministry of Education and Culture and those considered good are distributed by the publishers through the Regional Offices in the provinces and through the District/Municipality Offices.

In addition to the supply financed by Inpres, schools may add the supply of textbooks using an allocation from the Branch Office for Educational Organization.

Supply of learning materials. Before 1969 the supply of learning materials depended upon the ability of the local area to provide them. At the beginning of Repelita I, the supply of learning materials began with the issue of a map of Indonesia for social studies. This map was then distributed to the schools. In the following Repelita further sets of learning materials were distributed to all schools.

In-service training for teachers

Bearing in mind the extensiveness of Indonesia and its geographic situation of thousands of islands, the use of mass media and educational technology to reach remote areas is considered one relatively inexpensive and effective alternative for education that can be carried out continuously. The in-service training programme, conducted through the educational communication technology system, enriches the available learning sources and training materials and promotes the implementation of these training materials in the classroom more equally and rapidly at the primary school level, in the remote areas. This programme reaches 34,000 primary school teachers spread over 11 provinces and is being expanded.

In 1981 there were already 11,640 learning groups and this figure is presently being re-assessed. The groups are classified as active or non-active. Active groups are given details of the educational radio programmes so that the teachers can prepare themselves to listen when they are broadcast through the 24 stations of Radio Republic Indonesia, 25 regional government radio stations and 6 commercial private radio stations. Audio cassettes for these programmes are provided by the Centre of Educational and Cultural Communication Technology, Office of Educational Research and Development, Ministry of Education and Culture (Table 4).

Financial source

Primary schools are financed by the Government under the Government Expenditure and Revenue Budget. This consists of a recurrent budget for the implementation of school services, school administration, personnel welfare, supervision/data analysis and data reporting, and salaries for teachers and Regional Office employees; and a development budget, for the construction of primary school buildings and furniture, water supply, additional classes, housing for the school watchman, housing for teachers and school

Table 4. Educational Media Production and Policy Information for Primary Schools (1980-1983)

	1980-1981	*1981-1982*	*1982-1983*	*PLAN*
				1983 1984
Film	8	9	15	16
Audio recording primary school teacher training	252 (4 field studies).	312 (4 field studies).	300 (4 field studies).	320 (4 field studies).
	414,000	–	384,000	–
Sound slide (primary school teacher training)	22	9	4	15
Others	5	6	3	5
Sound slide of solar eclipse	–	–	240	–
TV/Video				
a. Television of General Education				
1. Developing aptitude	–	12	6	12
2. Nature and its surroundings	–	12	15	26
3. Skills	–	–	6	12
4. Family quiz	–	5	21	24
5. Others	6	5	–	–
b. Television of child education.	1	3	5	10

principals, and for textbooks and library books. There is also a provincial expenditure and revenue budget consisting of a recurrent budget for stationery, and a development budget to supply demonstration materials, renovation of buildings, school equipment, and supply of land. Other sources of finance come from the community and foreign aid, such as Unesco grants in the form of library books.

Only the Inpres, SBPP and salaries figures were available to show the trend in the increase/decrease of funds per pupil per year.

Nevertheless it is estimated that these figures almost represent the total amount (Table 5).

Table 5. Trends in allocation of funds per pupil per year

Year	*By Presidential Instruction Inpres in millions of Rp**	*SBPP In millions of Rp*	*Salaries In millions of Rp.*	*Students*	*(2+3+4)/(5) In rupiahs*
1976	53,877,0	–	–	15,550,124	–
1977	82,550,0	7,000	211,164,3	17,265,291	17,417
1978/79	108,552,5	12,650	214,298,9	19,074,819	17,598
1979/80	130,721,0	23,400	231,316,7	21,165,724	18,210
1980/81	242,149,8	35,870	524,444,6	22,551,870	35,583
1981/82	364,503,3	46,600	645,869,2	23,862,488	44,295
1982/83	560,241,1	55,687,5	–	24,743,598	–

* Approximately 1,005 Indonesian rupiah (Rp) = one United States Dollar

Supply of primary school buildings

To expand and give equal opportunities for education, especially to the 7-12 age group, the Government has been building primary schools on a large scale since 1973. Regional Governments provided a 1,500 m^2 piece of land for each school.

The number of primary school buildings constructed between 1973 and 1984 is listed below.

Unit I (3 classrooms)	73,050
Unit II (3 classrooms)	62,550
Multistoreyed buildings (6 classrooms)	570
Additional classrooms	125,700
Housing for school principals	38,340
Housing for teachers	53,660
Housing for school watchmen	55,190

Planning and implementation problems included difficulty in getting detailed and accurate data down to the District/Municipality and Sub-District levels, the remoteness of some schools, and a lack of properly trained people to determine the location of new primary schools.

Planning was at first done through the top-bottom approach. A national allocation was made up to the Second Level Region, and then finalized through consultation or national workshops. This approach was gradually combined with the bottom-top approach.

Participation of the local people

Financial assistance from the community, while small, compared to the amount allocated by the Government, is quite significant. It is chanelled through the branch office for Educational Organization and is an amount that can be used for school organization or to increase non-salary expenditure.

This amount can be broken down into 50 per cent for rehabilitation, 35 per cent for non-salary operational activities of education, 15 per cent for administration and for part-time teachers, like teachers of arts and physical education.

In general the school principal hands in a list of needs and budget for a certain school year to the Head of the Sub-District Office of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

A representative of the Branch Office for Educational Organization meets the members of the community and a decision is reached on the amount of the monthly contributions from the community.

Chapter Two

ANALYSIS

The government has given first priority to primary education since the beginning of Repelita II. It has allocated Rp 2,174,600,000 in the last ten years to build and renovate primary school buildings. This excludes the cost of textbooks, school-library furniture, physical education facilities, training for teachers and their placement which is provided separately.

Enrolment

Enrolment levels for the age groups 7-12 years at the end of Repelita II was 85.2 per cent and during Repelita III it was expected that all children between 7-12 would be accommodated at school. It is anticipated that at the beginning of Repelita IV (1984-1989) education for this group will become compulsory.

It is estimated that now there are no schools located more than 3 km from any residence.

There are two formal primary education institutes:

a) The first of its kind is called 'Sekolah Dasar; abbreviated into SD, based on Government regulation No. 65 of 1951 of which the administration aspect rests with the Department of Internal Affairs, whereas the education aspect is managed by the Department of Education and Culture.

b) The second institute of primary education is called 'Madrasah Ibtidaiyah', abbreviated into MI, where the core of its curriculum stresses religious teachings and it is under the Department of Religion.

To give a picture of comparison between SD and MI an overall survey was carried out in 1980-1981 with the following result:

The growth of the whole population compared to the 7-12 age group shows a gross enrolment ratio increase from 66.1 per cent

Institutes	*Total schools*	*Total students*
SD	105,796 (81.5 per cent)	22,551.870 (87.9 per cent)
MI	23,971 (18.5 per cent)	3,112,319 (12.2 per cent)
SD + MI	129,767	25,664,189 (100 per cent)

in 1971 to 91.0 per cent in 1981/82 with an average increase of 3.6 per cent yearly. The number of rural schools has increased by almost 45 per cent since 1977. In the corresponding period, urban schools have increased by 33 per cent (Table 7). The growth percentage of students enrolled in rural areas is greater than urban areas. Students enrolment in rural areas has increased by almost 45 per cent since 1977 while urban enrolment has increased by 40 per cent (Table 8).

The definition of urban and rural areas is not consistent with the definition prepared by the Central Bureau of Statistics. This bureau has revised the definition three times. In this paper, all municipalities belong to urban areas, the rest are rural areas.

The percentage of girl and boy students in the academic year 1980-1981 for SD and MI is as follows:

Table 6. Number of schools, pupils and gross enrolment ratio of primary schools

(1971 to 1980/1981)

Year	*Schools*		*Pupils*		*Population 7-12 year*	*Gross enrolment ratio of primary schools %*
	Total	*Per cent Increase*	*Total*	*Per cent Increase*		
1971	64,335	0.46	12,896,147	0.60	19,500,300	66.1 %
1972	65,227	1.39	13,030,548	1.04	20,020,900	65.1 %
1973	65,910	1.64	13,069,459	0.30	20,555,200	63.6 %
1974	66,994	9.84	13,314,246	1.87	21,090,600	63.1 %
1975	73,589	9.07	14,280,157	7.25	21,653,000	67.7 %
1976	80,261	4.15	15,550,124	11.03	22,230,000	70.0 %
1977	83,590	10.66	17,265,291	10.48	22,822,100	75.7 %
1978/1979	92,499	6.22	19,074,819	10.96	23,429,700	81.4 %
1979/1980	98,248	7.68	21,165,724	6.55	24,053,100	88.0 %
1980/1981	105,796	4.02	22,551,870	5.81	24,793,900	91.0 %

Data Source: Primary School Statistics- BP3K 1971 – 1980/1981

Table 7. Number of schools by urban and rural areas
(1977 to 1982/1983)

Year	*Urban*		*Rural*		*Total*
	School	*Per cent*	*School*	*Per cent*	
1977	9,093	10.88	74,497	89.12	83,590
1978/1979	9,648	10.43	82,851	89.57	92,499
1979/1980	10,504	10.69	87,744	89.31	98,248
1980/1981	11,344	10.72	94,452	89.28	105,796
1981/1982	11,527	10.47	98,523	89.53	110,050
1982/1983	12,086	10.11	107,435	89.89	119,521

Data Source: Primary School Statistics BP3K 1977 – 1982/1983.

Table 8. Number of primary school pupils by urban and rural areas
(1977 to 1982/1983)

Year	*Urban*		*Rural*		*Total*
	Pupils	*Per cent*	*Pupils*	*Per cent*	
1977	2,475,389	14.34	14,789,902	85.66	17,265,291
1978/1979	2,736,565	14.35	16,338,254	85.65	19,074,819
1979/1980	3,083,938	14.57	18,081,786	85.43	21,165,724
1980/1981	3,323,880	14.74	19,227,990	85.26	22,551,870
1981/1982	3,447,095	14.45	20,415,393	85.55	23,862,488
1982/1983	3,484,206	14.08	21,259,392	85.92	24,743,598

Data Source: Primary School Statistics – BP3K 1977 – 1982/1983

Schools	*Boys*	*Girls*
SD	54.4	45.6
MI	48.5	51.5
SD + MI	53.8	46.2

The growth percentage of boy and girl students of primary schools since 1974 is shown in Table 9.

Table 10 shows the average number of students in each class at each grade since 1974, which is approximately 32.

Table 9. Number of primary school pupils by sex
(1974 to 1981/1982)

Year	Pupils		Pupils		Total
	Boys	Per cent	Girls	Per cent	
1974	7,271,806	54.6	6,042,440	45.4	13,314,246
1975	7,788,701	54.5	6,491,456	45.5	14,280,157
1976	8,366,707	53.8	7,183,417	46.2	15,550,124
1977	9,288,257	53.8	7,977,034	46.2	17,265,291
1978/1979	10,314,615	54.1	8,760,204	45.9	19,074,819
1979/1980	11,340,970	53.6	9,824,754	46.4	21,165,724
1980/1981	12,260,050	54.4	10,291,820	45.6	22,551,870
1981/1982	13,105,225	54.9	10,757,263	45.1	23,862,488

Data Source: Primary School Statistics – BP3K 1974 – 1981/1982.

Table 10. Average number of primary school pupils per class
(1974 to 1981/1982)

Year	Average number of pupils per class						Average
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	
1974	40.1	35.4	32.8	28.7	25.4	21.8	31.5
1975	40.0	33.1	30.5	27.9	24.3	21.5	29.6
1976	37.0	33.5	31.5	28.9	25.4	21.8	30.5
1977	37.0	33.6	32.4	29.6	26.3	23.1	31.2
1978/1979	37.3	34.1	32.3	30.4	27.5	24.0	31.8
1979/1980	38.2	34.0	32.2	30.0	27.8	24.9	32.1
1980/1981	38.0	34.4	32.4	30.0	27.9	25.1	32.3
1981/1982	37.0	35.0	32.9	29.3	27.9	25.6	31.8

Data Source: Primary School Statistics 1974 – 1981/1982

Table 11 indicates that in 1972 out of 100 students in grade I, only 52 reached grade VI while in 1976 the number of students increased to 60. The graduate students index has increased from 48 to 57 during four years.

The repetition rate has dropped from 12.3 per cent in 1971 to 10 per cent in 1980-1981 while during the same period the drop-out rate has declined from 10.6 per cent to 5.1 per cent.

Table 11. Pupils cohort in Indonesia

(1972 to 1981/1982)

Year	*Grade*						Graduates
	I	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*	
1972	100 (3.018.452)						
1973	100 (3.032.255)	90					
1974	100 (3.446.835)	93	83				
1975	100 (3.552.670)	89	83	70			
1976	100 (4.002.377)	92	82	73	60		
1977	100 (4.331.285)	94	88	74	64	52	48
78/79	100 (4.929.754)	91	87	78	65	56	52
79/80	100 (5.682.323)	92	83	75	68	57	52
80/81 *)	100 (5.221.513)	89	84	75	68	61	57
81/82 *)	100 (5.284.819)	93	82	75	67	60	

***) Including Timor-Timur**
Data Source Primary School Statistics BP3K 1981-1982

Standards for primary schools

The standard set for primary schools was six classes, 240 students, six teachers and one headmaster. In the early years the building of primary schools was based on this school standard. But in practice the school size based on the number of teachers and students in 1974, 1975, 1976 did not match that standard. The number of teachers varied from one to 12 and the number of students varied from 50 to 600.

The percentage of schools having seven teachers including a headmaster was approximately 15 per cent. On the other side the number of schools having students 201-250 (approximately 17 per cent) was smaller than schools having students 151-200 (approximately 23 per cent).

The number of teachers from 1974 to 1982-1983 according to sex is shown in Table 12 while the number of teachers according to the areas is shown in Table 13. Within nine years the total number of teachers has increased from 288,986 to 550,909.

Table 12. Number of primary school teachers by sex
(1974 to 1982/1983)

Year	*Teachers by sex*				*Total*
	Male	*Per cent*	*Female*	*Per cent*	
1974	288,986	65.1	155,255	34.9	444,241
1975	305,746	64.7	166,952	35.3	472,698
1976	327,433	63.6	187,479	36.4	514,912
1977	362,823	65.7	189,104	34.3	551,927
1978/1979	401,347	67.7	191,092	32.3	592,439
1979/1980	426,190	68.8	193,582	31.2	619,772
1980/1981	454,076	68.1	212,703	31.9	666,779
1981/1982	476,554	66.8	236,668	33.2	713,222
1982/1983	550,909	66.8	273,315	33.2	824,224

Data Source: Primary School Statistics BP3K 1974 – 1982/1983

Table 13. Primary school teachers by urban and rural areas

Year	*Number of primary school teachers*				*Total*
	Urban	*Per cent*	*Rural*	*Per cent*	
1977	76,465	13.9	475,462	86.1	551,927
1978/1979	82,504	13.9	509,935	86.1	592,439
1979/1980	86,725	14.0	533,047	86.0	619,772
1980/1981	99,815	15.0	566,964	85.0	666,779
1981/1982	103,205	14.5	610,017	85.5	713,222
1982/1983	104,945	12.7	719,279	87.3	824,224

Data Source: Primary School Statistics BP3K – 1977 – 1982/1983

Although the number of female students undergoing teacher training is bigger than the male students, the number of women teachers was smaller than that of men because of the difficulty of placement.

Reasons were identified for school age children not attending school in both urban and rural areas. These were lack of understanding of the value of education, socio-economic factors, laziness, ignorance and dull classes. This group comprised only 5 per cent of school age children. The government has tried to overcome this problem by opening non-conventional primary schools such as Impact Project, Small SD, and Learning Group Packet A which are discussed further in Chapter Four.

In 1982 the Department of Social Affairs identified a tribal/nomadic population of 1,495,000 people spread in 20 provinces mostly in Irian Jaya. The government has made efforts to develop their education since 1951 and these efforts have been enhanced in recent years.

Supervision of schools

The number of primary school and kindergarten supervisors is not yet certain. In 1982 a survey was carried out amongst the heads of sub-district offices, to identify the number of supervisors. Besides supervisors of elementary school and kindergarten there are also supervisors of young generation development, physical education and sport, directorate of community education and supervisors of culture. From 68 per cent of the respondents conclusions can be drawn that the number of supervisors is still lacking. A supervisor should inspect 20 primary schools which is 30 per cent more than the fixed standard. Distribution of the number of primary school and kindergarten supervisors and the school supervisors ratio by province is shown in Table 14.

Those who are designated as supervisors were former senior headmasters of primary schools. As they should go from one area to another area for inspection, they have been equipped with motorcycles since 1975. Besides their function in educational matters supervisors are also assigned to do administrative matters dealing with finance and school mapping, and in fact act as officials of the respective District Office of Education, managed by the Department of Internal Affairs. They also have some training from the Office of the Department of Education and Culture of the same region. They are assigned to give lectures in various fields to mobile training courses carried out in the same region.

Table 14. Number of kindergarten and primary school supervisors and ratio of schools to supervisors sample result 68 per cent

(1982)

No.	*Provinces*	*Primary school supervisors*	*Supervised primary schools*	*Ratio of primary schools to supervisors*
01.	DKI Jakarta	144	2,179	15.13
02.	Jawa Barat	857	9,072	10.59
03.	Jawa Tengah	774	14,383	18.58
04.	DI Yogyakarta	. . .	. . .	. . .
05.	Jawa Timur	442	13,182	29.82
06.	DI Aceh	126	2,050	16.27
07.	Sumatera Utara	329	7,686	23.36
08.	Sumatera Barat	136	3,062	22.51
09.	Rian	74	1,723	23.28
10.	Jambi	31	1,082	34.90
11.	Sumatera Selatan	109	2,866	26.29
26.	Bengkulu	41	890	21.71
12.	Lampung	37	980	26.49
13.	Kalimantan Barat	22	571	25.95
14.	Kalimantan Tengah	48	1,300	27.08
15.	Kalimantan Selatan	109	1,912	17.54
16.	Kalimantan Timur	. . .	. . .	. . .
17.	Sulawesi Utara	42	1,004	23.90
18.	Sulawesi Tengah	42	923	21.98
19.	Sulawesi Selatan	139	2,773	19.94
20.	Sulawesi Tenggara	. . .	. . .	. . .
21.	Maluku	. . .	. . .	. . .
22.	Bali	55	1,542	28.04
23.	Nusa Tenggara Barat	74	1,974	26.68
24.	Nusa Tenggara Timur	123	2,566	20.86
25.	Irian Jaya	35	768	21.94
27.	Timor Timur	. . .	. . .	. . .
	Indonesia	3,789	74,488	19.66

. . . the data is not available

Curriculum development

Since independence the school curriculum has been revised at least five times. The present curriculum is called curriculum 1975 and it is soon likely to be revised to suit national needs and international demands. In preparing the 1975 curriculum, efforts were taken to suit the subject taught at school with educational objectives in particular and national objectives in general.

The nine subjects taught at primary schools are religion, moral pancasila, Indonesian language, social sciences, mathematics, physical education and health, art, natural science and some skills education.

The detailed description of subjects taught per grade is shown in Table 15. As indicated in that table the length of period per subject taught in the grades I and II is half that taught in other grades. Thus a school building having five classrooms can be used by one primary school consisting of six grades. Grades I and II use the same classroom in turn. In urban areas there are a lot of primary school buildings used by more than one school.

In the implementation of curriculum, each subject taught has a special manual. The manual contains an outline of the teaching programme, the understanding of subject taught, distribution and allocation of time, the approach used, administration, methods used, medium of instruction, reference books, and evaluation.

Special education. Up to now the community has played a big role in the management of special education. Nearly 90 per cent of the management of special education is carried out by the private sector.

Both private and public schools for the handicapped have various educational facilities provided by the government or private institutions in Indonesia or abroad. In the teaching of the handicapped, educational facilities are decisive factors in the attainment of learning-teaching objectives. Through Presidential Instruction No. 4 of 1982, 200 schools for the handicapped will be built where such schools are not found.

Out-of-school education

Non-formal or out-of-school education is a sub-system of the national education programme which mainly serves those who, for

Table 15. Curriculum in primary schools

(1975)

Average number of working days for primary schools in year: 225 days
Average number of lesson periods per week : 32 hours

Subject/Activity	*Grades*					
	I	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*
Religions Education	2	2	2	3	3	3
Pancasila Moral Education	2	2	2	2	2	2
Indonesian language	8	8	8	8	8	8
Social Science	–	–	2	2	2	2
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	6
Natural Sciences	2	2	3	4	4	4
Sports and Hygienics	2	2	3	3	3	3
Arts	2	2	3	4	4	4
Special skills	2	2	4	4	4	4
Total periods	26	26	33	36	36	36

One lesson period = 30 minutes for grade I and II
40 minutes for grade III-VI

Data Source: Book of primary school curriculum

any reason, do not attend school. Out-of-school education puts more emphasis on the provision of knowledge, mental attitude and practical life-skills relevant to the environmental needs of the society.

Thus, the out-of-school education programme is a work-study programme implemented by learning groups with the purpose of catching up what is lacking. The main trends and new developments in out-of-school education are the organization of the method of learning, delivery, and the curriculum.

In the past, all illiterate people in one village were called together in the classrooms of the village primary school and taught by so-called 'professional' teachers. These were sometimes the village primary school teachers who had been given additional training in how to teach the 3Rs. They might also be non-school teachers especially assigned for that purpose.

Under the present policy the illiterates do not go to school any more. Together with their neighbours they form a learning group of five to ten persons, and choose a literate person among them to teach them literacy and numeracy. The literate person acts as tutor and guide using specially developed literacy packages. The classes take place in the homes of students in the evening between 19:00 and 21:00 hours. There is also some development in the delivery system, such as structure, analysis and synthesis, and provision of a number of supplementary materials such as printed media.

Some basic principles in the preparation of the Packages are as follows:

1. The content must be relevant to the daily life of the people;
2. The content must be written so that man is always at the centre of attention. The content must be 'the minimum essential learning needs' of the people;
3. The package must include the following:
    a) spiritual values based on the belief in God Almighty,
    b) sense of mutual help, sense of tolerance, acquisition of a critical and logical view, and a democratic way of thinking,
    c) functional capability in reading, writing and speaking in Bahasa Indonesia and in arithmetic so as to be able to read magazines, newspapers and booklets on agriculture health etc. to write simple personal and official letters and to measure areas, to calculate loan interest etc.,
    d) basic knowledge and scientific view on the maintenance of the eco-system, relationship of sanitation and health, methods of farming etc.,
    e) application of knowledge and skills on family health, nutrition, management of household budget, etc., and
    f) active participation in community life;
4. The package must move from simple to complex materials, and the learning of the 3Rs must be integrated; and
5. The content of out-of-school education includes civic education (Pancasila, religion and political education), knowledge, skill and mental attitude, and socio-cultural education.

Chapter Three

NATIONAL POLICY AND PLAN OF UPE

Legal foundation

One article in the Education Fundamentals Act states that 'a child aged six years is entitled to receive an education, while a child aged eight years is obligated to attend an education for six years'. It is this article that is applied by the government in implementing the universalization of primary education. The creation of an introductory course to compulsory education, a form of a simple primary school, was established on a large scale in the 1950s. This undertaking convinced the parents and society as to the importance of education and was accomplished voluntarily in mutual co-operation.

In 1973 the government drew up a state policy on the universalization of primary education which stated:

> Education is essentially a conscious undertaking to develop the personality and capability in and outside the school and takes place for life. On account of that, in order that the education *may be owned by the entire people** in accordance with their respective/individual capabilities, education is the responsibility of the family, society and Government.

The broad outlines of the state policy of 1978 state:

> The emphasis of the educational programme is laid on the expansion of elementary education within the frame of realizing the implementation of compulsory education, that all at once provides the skills in accordance with its environmental requirement.

If the President confirms that compulsory education will go ahead it will begin in July 1984.

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* The italics are added by the writer

Strategy of approach

Indonesia is an archipelagic state of about 13,000 islands all with different densities of population. The entire territory of Indonesia may be divided on the basis of three criteria:

a) Normal areas (not isolated) and physically isolated areas, because their locations are far apart;

b) Areas with dense population and areas with sparse population; and

c) Areas with easy communications and areas with difficult communications.

In facing the uneven and homogeneous distribution of population the strategy for compulsory education implementation is arranged as follows:

Compulsory education for isolated areas. Primary school buildings have been constructed consisting of three rooms with three teachers to serve grades I to VI. These will be known as small primary schools. Learning/teaching process modules are available bearing in mind that a teacher possibly teaches two classes simultaneously.

Compulsory education for densely populated areas. As there is difficulty in obtaining land for school buildings, they are multistoreyed and can have more than six classrooms. Schools like this are found in big cities. They may be used for single or double sessions.

Compulsory education for normal areas. In normal areas having a population below 1,000 persons each km^2, primary schools are set up with six study rooms for the six grades of education.

Ibtidaiyah Islamic schools. An Ibtidaiyah Islamic School (IIS) is an educational institution of the same level as a primary school conducting a study of the Islamic religion as a subject as well as general subjects of instruction. The Certificate or Diploma of IIS has the same value as that of primary schools. A student of an IIS may transfer to a primary school and its graduates may continue their studies at junior high schools. The duration of study at IIS may be extended from six years to seven years or by adding the periods of lessons of each day outside the periods stipulated in the curriculum.

SD Pamong. 'Pamong' is an abbreviation of 'Pendidikan Anak oleh Masyarakat Orangtua dan Guru' (Education of Children by the Society of Parents and Teachers). The significance of these schools is the participation of parents and the society generally, who assist by furnishing places of study and who participate in the learning process.

The SD Pamong are established at places where there are children of 7-12 years of age, either not attending or having dropped out of school. They also have grades I to VI. The study activities may take place in the day-time, in the afternoon, or in the evening, as desired by the parents and children so as not to disturb other economic activities. In isolated areas the learning/teaching activities may take place in the houses of the population at certain times in accordance to the children's spare time.

Primary school teachers or tutors from the community, run a programme called the Kejar programme using learning packages or modules.

Special schools. There are special schools for the blind, deaf, mentally handicapped, the physically handicapped, and maladjusted children. Some schools cater for all kinds of disability but most take only students with one particular kind of disability. Teachers are graduates from the Special College of Teachers' Education, Bachelor of Arts from the Institute of Teachers' Education, majoring in Special Education, or a Diploma Programme, majoring in Special Education.

Integrated primary schools. The pupils of integrated primary schools consist of normal children and disabled children. The staff consists of normally trained and specially trained teachers working together with classes.

Education for girls. There is no difference between girls and boys in access to education. In the academic year 1980-1981, boys comprised 53.8 per cent of the total students and girls 46.2 per cent. Girls and boys go to the same school as there is no institution at the primary level which teaches boys and girls separately. However, there are special subjects taught mainly to girls such as cooking and sewing.

Education at the rural areas. Rural areas cover 80 per cent of the total areas so education in the rural areas is very important.

The education programme is planned in conformity with the community needs, aimed at making the village productive and keeping the graduates of primary school in their own village.

Education in the remote areas. The two factors that determine whether a certain place is a remote area are its distance from a learning centre and the small number of its population. The government provides different kinds of schools for 7-12 year old children based on the following considerations:

a) A location with between 10 to 60 children aged 7-12. This is an area which could be reached by children aged 7-12 within a radius of approximately 3 km. Small schools are built to accommodate these children.

b) Location with less than ten children aged 7-12. The Government provides different kinds of schools:

   i) *SD Pamong.* One primary school is designated to be the centre of activities and teachers of the designated school come to the location two or three times a week. Each child learns using a module, assisted by his parents or any other person who acts as a tutor.

   ii) *Dormitories.* The Government provides dormitories to accommodate the children who live in areas more than 3 km from learning centres/primary schools. Both the Government and private sectors build these dormitories.

   iii) *Radio.* Educational broadcasts are provided by the Centre of Communication Technology of the Department of Education and Culture.

c) Education is available for special groups comprising children who do not go to school because of the poor condition of their parents, they belong to nomadic tribes, or they are handicapped.

d) Children from poor families often assist their parents in earning money. They may join an SD Pamong or a learning group where they could learn at any time and any place without disturbing their daily activities.

e) In spite of the small number of nomadic tribes the government has provided education for them. The children of these tribes also join learning groups.

f) Functionally the responsibility for compulsory education lays with the Minister of Education and Culture. Operationally however, compulsory education is managed by the part-time working group for compulsory education established from central to village levels.

In the Department of Education and Culture there is a Sub-Directorate of the Development of Compulsory Education having the following sections: (a) publications; (b) data recording; (c) evaluation; and (d) programming.

Evaluation and monitoring activities are also carried out regularly at all levels, from central to village.

Drop-outs and repeaters

One of the obstacles in the implementation of compulsory education is the existence of repeaters and drop-outs. According to the regulations enacted, a student may only repeat twice during his whole primary education. A student who repeats more than twice will be treated specifically. It is assumed that the repeaters are 5 to 10 per cent for each grade. According to 1980 census the number of drop-outs in the 7-12 age group was 5.09 per cent for each grade. Most repeaters are incapable students, while drop-outs are affected by socio-economic, socio-cultural factors and other factors.

Realizing that the repetitions and drop-outs will hamper the implementation of compulsory education, the Government agrees that parents and teachers of both repeaters and drop-outs should be given some guidance. Teachers should assist students and advise their parents that they should provide a better environment for learning so that their children may finish their study up to the grade VI and get their certificates. Teachers should be able to identify in advance who will repeat or drop-out and the reasons for it. Guidance should be prepared for teachers to assist them identify those who might repeat or drop-out; find the causes; give assistance and lessen the number of repeaters and drop-outs; and evaluate the success rate.

Providing an alternative place of study. The SD Pamong and Kejar programme provide a means for students to study at any time and place. Those who have finished their study either in the SD Pamong or the Kejar Programme are given chances to sit an equavalent primary school examination. With this arrangement it is expected that the drop-out problem could be overcome.

Teacher training

One of the reasons for drop-outs is the wrong attitude of teachers and parents. Some teachers do not teach interestingly while others frighten the students away. Some parents often tell their children that there is no benefit in going to school. To lessen the number of drop-outs because of these reasons a number of training courses have been conducted in various subjects designed for primary school teachers.

Other means to reduce the drop-out rate are the provision of improved educational facilities; the provision of schools near student residences; the requirement that to become a government official, one must have the primary school certificate; exemption from school fees for primary school students and the provision of fellowships.

Plan for improving the supply of teachers. In the implementation of compulsory education teacher provision is a decisive factor. At present those who could become primary school teachers should be graduated from General Teachers Training School at Secondary Level (SPG), Teachers Training School for Sport at the Secondary Level (SGO) and Teachers Training School for Religion at the Secondary Level (PGA).

Nationally there are adequate numbers of candidates for teacher training, however, their distribution is not even. In some provinces there are few teachers and in others there are too many teacher candidates. According to the experience it is not easy to move a primary school teacher from one area to another, because of the different traditions they have in each region.

To minimize this problem the Government will:

a) make all teacher education schools in each region of the same standard so that each province can meet the demand for teachers;

b) organize a crash programme by training general senior high school graduates to become primary schools teachers; and

c) provide fellowships for teacher education school students in remote areas.

Table 16. The provision of primary school teachers

Year	*General teachers*	*Sport and health teachers*
1983/1984	55,945	5,434
1984/1985	67,395	8,072
1985/1986	69,681	9,779
1986/1987	70,884	11,429
1987/1988	71,285	12,938
1988/1989	70,874	14,172
1989/1990	69,653	15,007

Table 16 shows the projection for teacher requirements up to 1990. There will also need to be 205 Public Teacher Training Schools, 395 Private Teacher Training Schools and 51 Teacher Training Schools for Sport and Health Education.

Plan for school building provision

By the beginning of Repelita IV there will be 24.7 million school-age children accommodated in primary schools. During Repelita IV the building of new schools and renovation of buildings will be continued including schools in the remote areas and special schools for the handicapped.

Language used as the medium of instruction

Bahasa Indonesia (the national language) is used as the medium of instruction in all schools. The Government has allowed schools wishing to do so to use local languages at the first three years of primary schools and Bahasa Indonesia from grade IV onwards. In some regions, however, there are a number of schools using Bahasa Indonesia as a medium of instruction from grade I.

Chapter Four

SIGNIFICANT NEW DEVELOPMENTS AND PROGRAMMES

In 1983, in co-operation with the National Development Planning Board, the Department of Education and Culture, Department of Internal Affairs, Finance Department and Department of Religion an overall data-processing exercise on basic educational institutes and their buildings was carried out.

Each school as an educational institute is provided with a School Statistics Number (NSS), and each of their school-buildings is provided with a Building Statistics Number (NSB). The respondents of the survey are all inspectors of Kindergartens Primary Schools throughout Indonesia. At the time this writing is made, the NSB 83 questionnaire forms already returned have reached 94 per cent. The criterion used to evaluate the preparation of compulsory education is the ratio of Pupil/Seat to Class/Teacher. On the basis of the latest primary school statistical result, an attempt has been made to estimate the position of each province. The results are shown in Tables 17 and 18. Each province has sufficient infrastructure and means to perform compulsory education.

The organization of primary schools in the traditional manner was incapable of responding to the demands of increased growth rate. An attempt has been made to supplement the primary schools, special schools and Ibtidaiyah Islamic Schools through the SD Pamong system which includes:

1. SD Pamong, Learning Centre Primary Schools Models with subjects for tuition in the form of modules;
2. SD Pamong, Learning Sub-Centre Primary School Models;
3. SD Pamong, SAC-PS Models with subjects for tuition in the form of Packet Books and Directions for Studying Packet Books;

Table 17. Students seats estimation primary school, MI and primary school + MI
(1984-1985)

Province	*Students*			*Pupils Seats*			*Pupils/Seats*		
	SD	*MI*	*SD+MI*	*SD*	*MI*	*SD+MI*	*SD*	*MI*	*SD+MI*
DKI Jakarta	1,076,582	89,992	1,166,574	728,341	85,924	814,265	1.48	1.05	1.43
Jawa Barat	4 778,283	935,412	5,713,695	5,030,488	707,268	5,737,756	0.95	1.32	1.00
Jawa Tengah	4.277,590	735,919	5,013,509	4,301,506	698,879	5,000,385	0.99	1.05	1.00
DI Yogyakarta	479,355	19,800	499,155	495,473	14,246	509,719	0.97	1.39	1.02
Jawa Timur	4,520,736	897,409	5,418,145	4,727,672	800,888	5,528,560	0.96	1.12	0.98
DI Aceh	451.969	100,436	552,405	494,437	65,100	559,537	0.91	1.54	0.99
Sumatera Utara	1 729.290	57,493	1,786,783	1,659,160	49,867	1,709,027	1.04	1.15	1.05
Sumatera Barat	660,586	23,022	683,608	651,717	21,863	673,580	1.01	1.05	1.01
Riau	386,906	30,584	417,490	452,942	28,364	481,306	0.85	1.08	0.87
Jambi	275,673	14,595	290,268	295,060	11,740	306,800	0.93	1.24	0.95
Sumatera Selatan	878,164	56,358	934,522	1,000,573	45,823	1,046,396	0.88	1.23	0.89
Bengkulu	169,826	17,662	187,488	778,854	12,863	191,717	0.95	1.37	0.98
Lampung	861,894	78,430	940,324	962,914	51,360	1,014,274	0.90	1.53	0.93
Kalimantan Barat	477,508	13,728	491,236	561,928	12,194	574,122	0.85	1.13	0.86
Kalimantan Tengah	179,446	15,279	194,725	205,780	13,340	219,120	0.87	1.15	0.89
Kalimantan Selatan	343,213	78,315	421,528	388,920	77,472	466,392	0.88	1.01	0.90
Kalimantan Timur	212,078	7,682	219,760	252,059	6,008	258,067	0.84	1.28	0.85
Sulawesi Utara	434,488	3,726	438,214	432,461	3,182	435,643	1.00	1.17	1.01
Sulawesi Tengah	270.916	11,052	281,966	272,849	10,250	283,099	0.99	1.08	1.00
Sulawesi Selatan	1,175,422	80,145	1,255,567	1,266,398	70,474	1,336,872	0.93	1.14	0.94
Sulawesi Tenggara	201,939	2,992	204,931	238,966	2,485	241,451	0.85	1.20	0.85
Maluku	262 584	11,353	273,937	250,256	11,047	261,303	1.05	1.03	1.05
Bali	480,559	6,216	486,775	500,589	6,050	506,639	0.96	1.03	0.96
Nusa Tenggara Barat	492 053	44,519	536,572	489,105	39,734	528,839	1.01	1.12	1.01
Nusa Tenggara Timur	539,707	8,183	547,890	528,245	7,752	535,997	1.02	1.06	1.02
Irian Jaya	203,622	948	204,570	224,915	925	225,840	0.91	1.02	0.91
Timor Timur	108,111	250	108,361	85,264	242	85,506	1.27	1.03	1.28
Indonesia	25,928 500	3,341,500	29,270,000	26,676,872	2,855,340	29,532,212	0.97	1.17	0.99

Data Source: Centre of Informatics – BP3K

4. SD Pamong, Village Council Hall Models with subjects for tuition in the form of modules;

5. SD Pamong, Village Council Hall Models with subjects for tuition in the form of Packet Books and Directions for Studying Packet Books;

6. Small Primary Schools with subjects for tuition in the form of Modules;

7. Packet Study Activities, which are prepared later on to undergo Primary School Competitive Examination (PSCE);

8. Packet A Study Activities with directions for means of livelihood education;

Table 18. Ratio of class to teachers primary school, MI, and primary school + MI
(1984-1985)

Province	*Classes*			*Teachers*			*Classes/Teachers*		
	SD	*MI*	*SD + MI*	*SD*	*MI*	*SD + MI*	*SD*	*MI*	*SD + MI*
DKI Jakarta	27,320	3,951	31,271	29,062	4,060	33,122	0.94	0.97	0.94
Jawa Barat	145,843	39,943	185,786	142,628	39,673	182,301	1.02	1.01	1.02
Jawa Tengah	144,391	33,350	177,741	160,813	33,663	194,476	0.90	0.99	0.91
DI Yogyakarta	16,399	1,183	17,582	19,053	1,275	20,328	0.86	0.93	0.86
Jawa Timur	136,749	38,716	175,465	156,889	38,414	195,303	0.87	1.01	0.90
DI Aceh	14,914	5,093	20,007	18,890	3,736	22,626	0.79	1.36	0.88
Sumatera Utara	58,188	6,170	64,358	65,899	5,981	71,880	0.88	1.03	0.90
Sumatera Barat	22,347	1,755	24,102	26,296	1,767	28,063	0.85	0.99	0.86
Riau	13,660	1,225	14,885	14,704	1,263	15,967	0.93	0.97	0.93
Jambi	10,235	2,076	12,311	13,420	2,065	15,485	0.76	1.01	0.80
Sumatera Selatan	26,808	2,780	29,588	31,903	2,543	34,446	0.84	1.09	0.86
Bengkulu	4,776	1,136	5,912	6,832	866	7,698	0.70	1.31	0.77
Lampung	25,895	2,911	28,806	28,020	2,481	30,051	0.92	1.17	0.94
Kalimantan Barat	16,395	786	17,181	19,127	662	19,789	0.86	1.19	0.87
Kalimantan Tengah	8,063	747	8,810	9,308	551	9,859	0.87	1.36	0.89
Kalimantan Selatan	13,293	4,272	17,565	17,419	3,812	21,231	0.76	1.12	0.83
Kalimantan Timur	8,127	393	8,520	10,884	394	11,278	0.75	1.00	0.76
Sulawesi Utara	17,222	262	17,484	19,860	217	20,077	0.87	1.21	0.87
Sulawesi Tengah	10,034	1,393	11,427	11,190	1,308	12,498	0.90	1.06	0.91
Sulawesi Selatan	39,841	4,596	44,437	42,579	4,304	46,883	0.94	1.07	0.95
Sulawasi Tenggara	7,081	340	7,421	8,548	356	8,904	0.83	0.96	0.83
Maluku	11,993	606	12,599	10,982	436	11,418	1.09	1.39	1.10
Bali	15,137	232	15,369	16,819	223	17,042	0.90	1.04	0.90
Nusa Tenggara Barat	14,745	2,458	17,203	16,542	2,769	19,311	0.89	0.89	0.89
Nusa Tenggara Timur	19,140	438	19,578	21,542	405	21,947	0.89	1.08	0.89
Irian Jaya	10,686	59	10,745	9,076	61	9,137	1.18	0.97	1.18
Timor Timur	2,553	19	2,572	3,037	15	3,052	0.84	1.27	0.84
Indonesia	841,835	156,890	998,725	931,322	153,300	1,084,622	0.90	1.02	0.92

Data Source: Centre of Informatics – BP3K

9. Laboratory Elementary Schools;
10. Integrated Elementary Schools.

The main characteristics meant to be developed in organizing such alternative primary schools are: the teacher can teach several classes simultaneously so that fewer teachers are needed at school. Besides teachers, the learning/teaching process can be performed by the society or the pupil's parents or his senior class-fellow as a tutor, the time to learn should be flexible, the subjects for tution should use modules, and the study hall should not be tied down to the school-building.

Teacher Training Institute Laboratory Primary Schools

The characteristics of these schools activities are research and development, centred on looking for and finding suitable means to carry out the functions of educational methods. The means for carrying out those functions are looked for, developed, put to the test, evaluated and perfected.

The means being throughly examined and developed for the implementation of educational functions are:

a) perfection of methods of teaching by means of modules;

b) the perfection of the implementation of the complete study principle. This programme of perfection covers means enabling the implementation of a complete study principle in a reasonable manner by way of providing each module with diagnostic tests, remedial programmes, enrichment programmes and other means supporting the implementation of the complete study principle;

c) preparation and implementation of comprehensive evaluation;

d) further developments of administrative means for the implementation of the continously progressing principle;

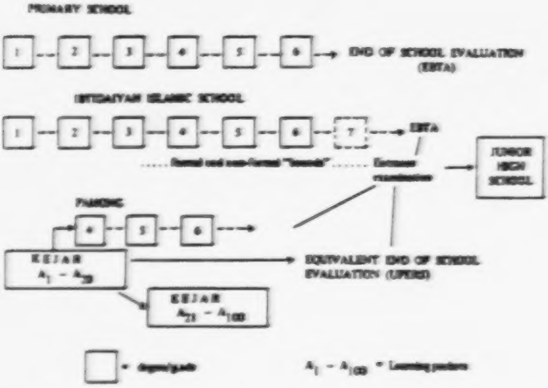
e) the development of a programmes of guidance and enlightenment; and

f) the development of terminal educational programmes.

Formal and non-formal education within the frame of compulsory education

Sometimes it is difficult to draw a sharp distinction between formal education and non-formal education. Compulsory education, although it will only be implemented for children in the age group 7-12 years, constitutes an arduous and complex task. Based on the preparations performed by the Government so far and supported by various facts and problems encountered, compulsory education will be conducted both through channels of formal and non-formal education. The connection between both channels as referred to is depicted in Figure 3. This seems to have been successful but what still constitutes a problem is whether those who have passed through UPERS obtain the same right as those passed through the EBTA.

Figure 3. Compulsory education through formal and non-formal education


PRIMARY SCHOOL
1
2
3
4
5
6
END OF SCHOOL EVALUATION (EBTA)
IBTIDAIYAH ISLAMIC SCHOOL
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
EBTA
Entrance examination
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
PAMONG
4
5
6
KEJAR A1 - A20
EQUIVALENT END OF SCHOOL EVALUATION (UPERS)
KEJAR A21 - A100
= degree/grade
A1 - A100 = Learning packets

There is an opinion that those who have passed through EBTA should be allowed to continue their studies to Junior High Schools, while those, who have passed through UPERS, should not be allowed to continue their studies. This matter may create the impression that there are two kinds of school-certificates at the level of primary education. In order to remove such an impression, those who will continue their studies to Junior High Schools, are obligated to go in for their entrance examinations.

Primary school administration

The Headmaster is the educational administrator in the environment of the school managed by him. In performing his task the Headmaster is assisted by teachers and other staff.

As an administrator a Headmaster is obligated to perform assignments covering planning, organizing, directing, co-ordinating, supervising and evaluating the entire educational activities in his school environment. Up to this moment Primary Schools have no special employees for administrative work. The Headmaster assigns several teachers to perform administrative tasks. At several primary schools, particularly private primary schools, of which the number of pupils is large, they appoint honorary administrative staff. The administrative task covers the arrangement of: (a) the learning/teaching process; (b) office administration; (c) pupils; (d) personnel affairs; (e) equipment; (f) financial affairs; (g) libraries; (h) the implementation of guidance and enlightenment; and (i) public relations.

A Special Team, the members of which come from the Department of Education and Culture, Department Internal Affairs, and the Department of Finance, are at present dealing with the uniformity of primary school administration.

The implementation of the uniformity of the Primary School administration will be arranged by a decree of the Minister of Education and Culture and the Minister of Internal Affairs. This will facilitate the method of reporting, enrich the types of data available at each school, and raise the quality of data/information for various needs.

A Planning and Programming Subsection is to be added to the Department of Education and Culture in the regions. The subdistricts level will have the addition of a Data and Statistics Subsection.

Approximately two years ago school-mapping activities were initiated. School Statistical Numbers and Building Statistical Numbers for Primary Schools and Ibtidaiyah Islamic Schools were consequently provided. Both activities are now being developed toward micro-planning In that way, the planning, which is more from top to bottom, can gradually be well-balanced with the planning from bottom to top.

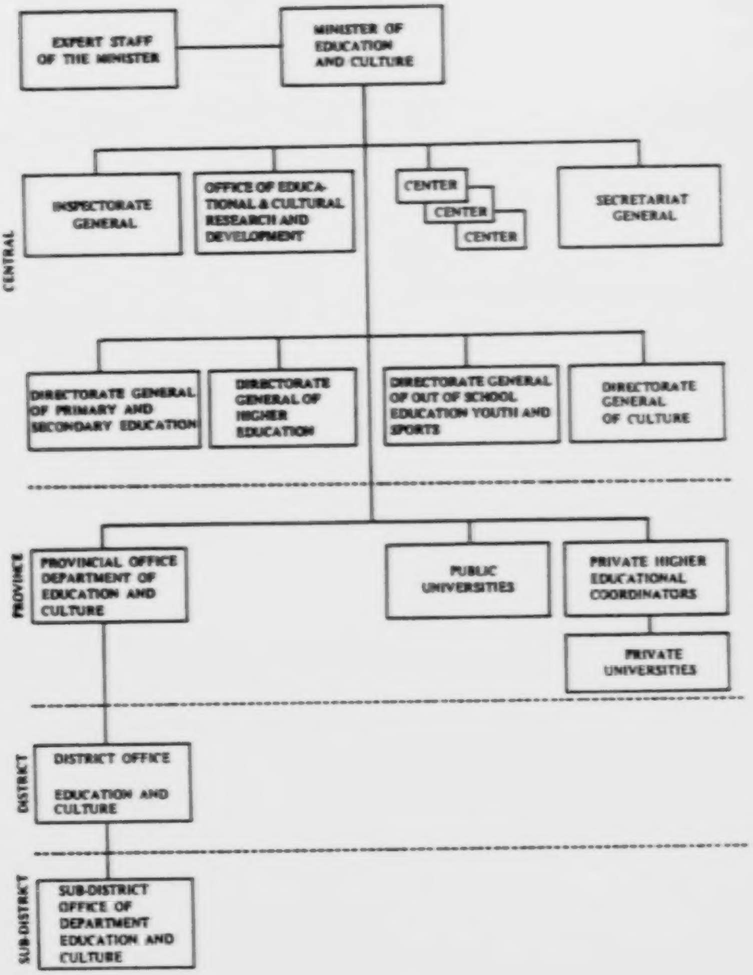
Method of promotion and appointment in teacher functional posts

One of the undertakings to raise the quality of teachers, now being put to the test, is the perfection of the Method of Career and Teacher Performance Development Ranking Ladder. This ladder has been created as a basis for teacher career development.

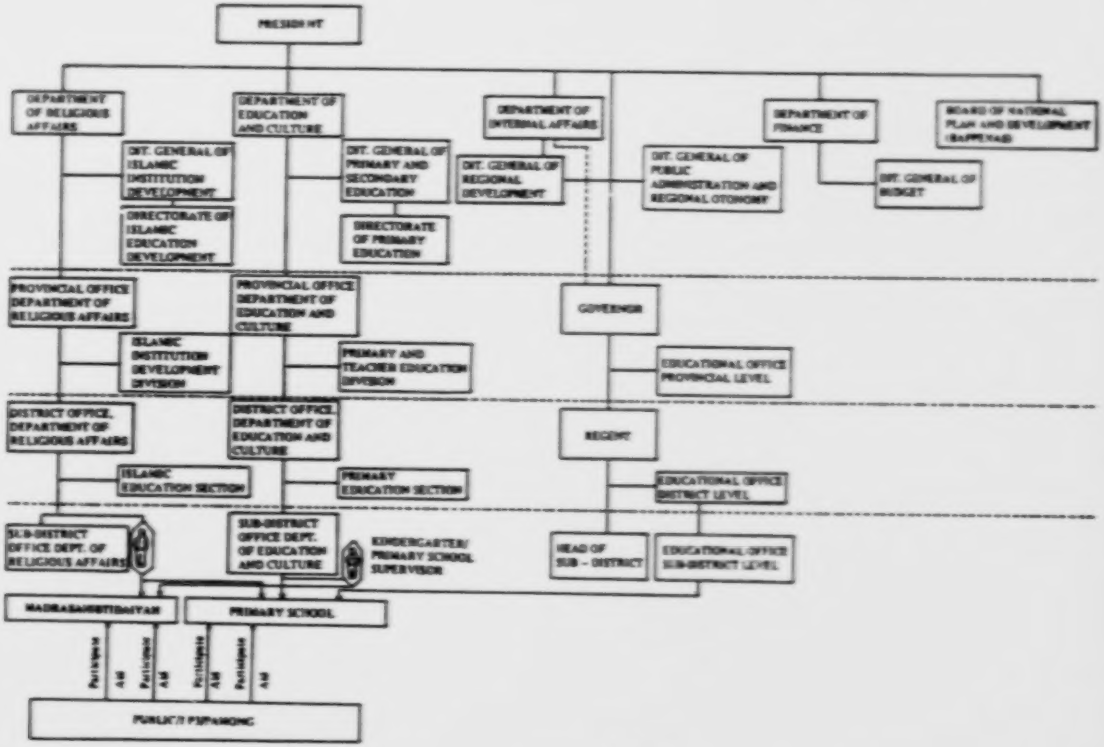
Areas to be examined and developed in the Method of Promotion and Appointment In Teacher Functional Posts are included the method of evaluating work performance; retaining high quality teachers evenly spread throughout primary education; and finding teachers who are prepared to be placed in isolated regions.

ANNEX

Annex Figure I. Organizational Structure, Department of Education and Culture.


EXPERT STAFF OF THE MINISTER
MINISTER OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
CENTRAL
INSPECTORATE GENERAL
OFFICE OF EDUCATIONAL & CULTURAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
CENTER
CENTER
CENTER
SECRETARIAT GENERAL
DIRECTORATE GENERAL OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
DIRECTORATE GENERAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION
DIRECTORATE GENERAL OF OUT OF SCHOOL EDUCATION YOUTH AND SPORTS
DIRECTORATE GENERAL OF CULTURE
PROVINCE
PROVINCIAL OFFICE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES
PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATIONAL COORDINATORS
PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES
DISTRICT
DISTRICT OFFICE EDUCATION AND CULTURE
SUB-DISTRICT
SUB-DISTRICT OFFICE OF DEPARTMENT EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Annex Figure II. **Primary education management (primary school and madrasah istidaiyah) in Indonesia**


PRESIDENT
DEPARTMENT OF RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE
BOARD OF NATIONAL PLAN AND DEVELOPMENT (BAPPENAS)
DIT. GENERAL OF ISLAMIC INSTITUTION DEVELOPMENT
DIRECTORATE OF ISLAMIC EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT
DIT. GENERAL OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
DIRECTORATE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION
DIT. GENERAL OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT
DIT. GENERAL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND REGIONAL OTONOMY
DIT. GENERAL OF BUDGET
PROVINCIAL OFFICE DEPARTMENT OF RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS
PROVINCIAL OFFICE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
GOVERNOR
ISLAMIC INSTITUTION DEVELOPMENT DIVISION
PRIMARY AND TEACHER EDUCATION DIVISION
EDUCATIONAL OFFICE PROVINCIAL LEVEL
DISTRICT OFFICE, DEPARTMENT OF RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS
DISTRICT OFFICE, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
REGENT
ISLAMIC EDUCATION SECTION
PRIMARY EDUCATION SECTION
EDUCATIONAL OFFICE DISTRICT LEVEL
SUB-DISTRICT OFFICE DEPT. OF RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS
SUB-DISTRICT OFFICE DEPT. OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
KINDERGARTEN/ PRIMARY SCHOOL SUPERVISOR
HEAD OF SUB – DISTRICT
EDUCATIONAL OFFICE SUB-DISTRICT LEVEL
MADRASAHIBTIDAIYAH
PRIMARY SCHOOL
Participate
Aid
Participate
Aid
Participate
Aid
Participate
Aid
PUBLIC/ P3PAMONG

Annex Table Ia
Percentage of total schools by number of teachers, including headmasters (1974-1976)

Number of Teachers per school (Including Headmaster)	*1974*	*1975*	*1976*
1	2,6	2,6	2,8
2	4,5	4,7	2,8
3	6,2	7,4	7,9
4	8,9	10,1	10,3
5	11,7	13,5	10,4
6	15,6	15,1	14,8
7	15,7	15,5	15,9
8	12,4	10,6	11,9
9	8,1	7,3	7,6
10	5,1	5,5	5,7
11	3,5	2,7	2,5
≥ 12	5,7	5,0	4,8

Data Source: Primary School Statistics BP3K 1974-1976

Annex Table Ib
Percentage of total schools by number of pupils (1974-1976)

Number of Pupils per School	*1974*	*1975*	*1976*
≤50	5,1	3,6	4,1
51 – 100	12,9	12,5	13,8
101 – 150	21,6	19,3	19,3
151 – 200	24,0	22,2	21,7
201 – 250	17,2	17,9	17,9
251 – 300	9,1	11,2	10,9
301 – 350	4,4	6,2	5,8
351 – 400	2,4	3,1	2,9
401 – 450	1,3	1,7	1,6
451 – 500	0,7	0,9	0,8
501 – 600	0,6	0,8	0,7
≥601	0,7	0,7	0,5

Data Source: Primary School Statistics BP3K 1974-1976

Annex Table II. Public expenditure on primary education

(1981-1982)

A. Current expenditure		
i) Teachers' salaries	Rp.	645,869,198,424,–
ii) Administration and supervision		
iii) Teachers/supervisor training	Rp.	46,600,000,000,–
iv) Other		
Total of A	Rp.	692,469,198,424,–
B. Capital expenditure		
i) School building	Rp	364,503,300,000,–
ii) Equipment		
Total of B	Rp.	364,503,300,000,–
Grand total of A & B	Rp.	1,056,972,498,424,–

Annex Table III. Net enrolment and gross enrolment ratio primary school level

(1980-1981)

No.	*Provinces*	*Population 7-12 age*	*Number of pupils 7-12 age prima + MI*	*N/Enr (per cent)*	*Number of pupils prima + MI*	*G/Enr (per cent)*
(1)	*(2)*	*(3)*	*(4)*	*(5) = (4/5 x 100%)*	*(6)*	*(7) = (6/7 x 100%)*
01.	DKI Jakarta	922,651	841,204	91.1	1,049,094	113.7
02.	Jawa Barat	4,811,272	3,996,313	83.1	5,042,584	104.8
03.	Jawa Tengah	4,203,648	3,654,892	86.9	4,479,329	106.6
04.	DI Yogyakarta	418,522	394,895	94.3	476,938	114.0
05.	Jawa Timur	4,606,368	4,000,787	86.9	4,852,273	105.3
06.	DI Aceh	465,261	401,420	86.3	490,803	105.5
07.	Sumatera Utara	1,518,721	1,334,287	87.8	1,594,156	105.0
08.	Sumatera Barat	586,758	524,205	89.3	613,624	104.6
09.	Riau	355,328	287,885	81.0	345,824	97.3
10.	Jambi	250,461	189,717	75.7	224,258	89.5
11.	Sumatera Selatan	797,638	661,361	82.9	793,087	99.4
26.	Bengkulu	136,829	113,485	82.9	140,982	103.0
12.	Lampung	856,205	690,801	80.7	773,549	90.3
13.	Kalimantan Barat	420,794	294,496	70.0	386,413	91.8
14.	Kalimantan Tengah	164,255	135,656	82.6	168,191	102.4
15.	Kalimantan Selatan	362,007	299,022	82.6	363,052	100.3
16.	Kalimantan Timur	193,978	152,462	78.6	185,608	95.7
17.	Sulawesi Utara	359,283	326,028	90.7	399,271	111.1
18.	Sulawesi Tengah	224,079	197,899	88.3	238,179	106.3
19.	Sulawesi Selatan	1,076,007	857,565	80.1	1,073,824	100.4
20.	Sulawesi Tenggara	175,772	150,113	85.4	177,450	101.0
21.	Maluku	235,449	199,804	84.9	236,338	100.4
22.	Bali	425,913	370,094	86.9	431,647	101.3
23.	Nusa Tenggara Barat	489,876	365,602	74.6	431,329	88.0
24.	Nusa Tenggara Timur	458,172	366,540	80.0	472,229	103.1
25.	Irian Jaya	183,039	122,676	67.0	159,111	86.9
27.	Timor Timur	101,630	44,997	44.3	65,046	64.0
	Indonesia	24,793,921	20,974,207	84.6	25,664,189	103.5

Data Source: Population Census L3 Serial

Annex Table IV. Age, Sex, grade distribution of pupils enrolled in all grades of primary education

(1977)

Age	*Grade*							*Per cent*
	I	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*	*Total*	
6	704						704	4.1
7	1,851	483					2,334	13.5
8	1,140	1,412	316				2,868	16.6
9	442	1,019	1,070	255			2,786	16.1
10	131	536	940	824	184		2,615	15.2
11	42	200	497	759	616	155	2,269	13.1
12	17	70	204	440	595	515	1,841	10.7
13	4	21	68	185	346	483	1,107	6.4
14		6	23	69	186	389	673	3.9
15			2	5	13	30	50	0.3
over 15				2	4	12	18	0.1
Total	4,331	3,747	3,120	2,539	1,944	1,584	17,265	100.0

Data Source: School Statistics – BP3K – 1977

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

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PREFACE

Universalization of primary education (UPE) is one of the major priority goals of countries in the region of Asia and the Pacific. The developing countries in particular, are now vigorously engaged in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans and programmes aimed at making adequate and suitable opportunities for primary education available as soon as possible for all children and young people.

In 1983, as part of a major project under the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) on the Universalization of Education, 12 countries in the region undertook national studies. The national studies were conducted to analyse the stage reached by the countries in UPE, and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level; to review significant new and current developments in programmes and projects which the countries have undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education; and to contribute to achieving the target of primary education for all children. The studies were conducted by national institutes and professional groups under the guidance of high level committees of the Ministries of Education in the respective countries.

On completion of the national studies, a Regional Review Meeting was held in November 1983 which undertook an in-depth analysis of the methodologies of the national studies and examined their findings. The meeting also made suggestions for improving and updating the national studies tabled for review.

Following the recommendations of the review meeting, study teams in the participating countries have revised and updated the national studies. The present publication is an outcome of the collaborative and co-operative efforts of the member countries in understanding the progress made in the universalization of primary education, the nature and extent of problems and issues and their implications for achieving UPE in the region before the end of this century.

This series which provides a comparative view of the position of and progress made in UPE has been published with the view that the countries in the region, in their bid to step up measures for UPE, will find the information, experiences and conclusions useful in pursuing the goal of 'education for all' with a new vigour by drawing on the experiences of other countries with the same goals and objectives.

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Chapter One

DESCRIPTION OF EDUCATION IN NEPAL

Historical background

Nepal has a long tradition of religious education, both Hindu and Buddhist, the two major religions of the country. Historically both the Buddhist and Hindu priesthoods were closely associated with the court and wielded considerable authority over the people. The quadrangles of civil settlements in Kathmandu and Patan, which still exist, were centres of Buddhist learning as well as apprenticeship training in various crafts. The Gombas in the northern part of the country trained young persons in the Buddhist priesthood, and the Sanskrit Pathsalas in Hindu religious rituals.

Nepal passed through a century-old dark age during the Rana period (1846-1951), which was characterized by an isolationist policy and stagnation of socio-economic development in the country. Educational progress was ruthlessly stemmed. However, the Durbar School established in 1883 to provide education to the children of the Rana family and their followers marks the beginning of the western type of education in Nepal. In this school the first two grades were called lower primary, and grades III to V, upper primary. There was also middle school from grades VI to VIII, and high school for grades IX and X.

Towards the beginning of this century, the then Rana Prime Minister implemented a plan of propagating elementary education. Consequently, a number of 'language schools' were set up to teach the alphabet and numerals. This Prime Minister's successor converted all the language schools into Sanskrit schools, which were accessible to only a few people who belonged to the Brahmin caste.

The country's first institution of higher education, Tri-Chandra College, was established in 1918. It prepared students to enter government service or to teach in primary and secondary schools. In 1938 the Government promulgated the Education Code, which laid down rules and regulations for the establishment of schools and for the provision of grants-in-aid. In 1940 the syllabus for primary education for five grades was published. Nepali, English (not compulsory for the first two grades), arithmetic, history/geography, Sanskrit and drawing were the subjects prescribed. Under the present system English is taught from grade IV onward and Sanskrit is also introduced in this grade.

During the later part of 1940, an attempt was made to introduce a basic education system along the Gandhian pattern that had been propagated in India. By 1954 there were 21 'basic primary schools' in Nepal, but the interest of the authorities as well as the people had already begun to die down by the early 1950s. By 1961 there were no basic primary schools left; all had been converted to regular primary schools.

When the Rana regime came to an end in 1951, a democratic set-up was ushered in. With the growing realization of the importance of education, schools were established by popular initiative in different parts of the country. In 1954 the Government appointed the Nepal National Education Planning Commission to review the education system of the country and to recommend measures for its comprehensive reform. One of the significant recommendations of the Commission was that the target of free and compulsory primary education of five years' duration should be achieved by 1985. It also recommended the adoption of a single system of publicly-supported education. It suggested establishment of National Primary Schools with a new curriculum comprising language arts (Nepali), social science, arithmetic, art education, health and physical education, science, vocational education and English (for grades III to V). The Government accepted the recommendations and established primary schools using the new curriculum. However, the regular type of schools, in which stress is placed on English, increased more rapidly than the National Schools, which adopted a diffused multi-subject curriculum rather than the usual three-or four-subject intensive one.

In 1961 another Commission, the All-Round National Education Committee, was established to make a study of the education system and suggest reform measures. The Committee suggested dropping English altogether from the primary school curriculum. The suggested primary curriculum was otherwise similar to that recommended by the 1954 Commission. The Government did not implement the recommendation except in abolishing English up to grade V. However, there was a strong protest from the supporters of English education and English was reintroduced from grade III on.

The 1970s saw two important developments in the field of education in Nepal – the introduction of vocational education in selected high schools, and of free and compulsory primary education in a few districts. The multipurpose vocational education introduced in 29 high schools was abandoned in 1971, when vocational education was made compulsory under the National Education System Plan for all the high schools of the country.

The free and compulsory primary education which was introduced in two districts (Jhapa and Chitwan) and eight of the 16 (now 29) town panchayats in the country from 1965 to 1970 relied largely on local financing with taxes being levied on such activities as the use of vehicles, sale and purchase of cattle and other items, and fairs and festivals. The Government contributed 25 per cent of the teachers' salaries to this programme. The programme succeeded in increasing enrolment, including that of girls, but ran into heavy financial difficulties. This experiment was abandoned in 1971, when, with the introduction of the National Education System Plan, the government took the responsibility of supporting cent for cent teachers' salaries in the primary schools.

The National Education System Plan (NESP) was introduced to systematize education development in Nepal. The Plan aimed at (i) democratizing education by extending educational facilitiies to all areas of the country, particularly rural and remote regions, (ii) promoting national integration by adopting a uniform curriculum and Nepali as the medium of instruction, and (iii) giving a vocational bias to education. Accordingly, steps were taken to extend primary education facilities to the maximum number of children, to provide training to teachers and to reform the curriculum and textbooks. The NESP programmes led to significant increases in enrolments at all levels, especially at the primary school level.

With the emphasis thus laid on the extension of primary education, His Majesty King Birendra declared primary education free in the country on 24 February 1975, the day of his coronation. Later, in stages, primary school textbooks were provided free to all primary school enrollees from grades I to III. Since 1981 the primary school grades have been extended to encompass the first five grades instead of the previous three gardes only. In 1982 primary enrolment (grades I through V) reached 1,475,240.

Among the measures taken to improve the quality of education are the efforts to frame a new curriculum and revise it periodically, to nationalize textbook production, to provide training for teachers, and to develop instructional materials. However, provision of necessary physical facilities and of trained teachers has not been able to keep pace with the growth of schools and of enrolment. This has led to a very high percentage of drop-outs and repeaters at the primary level.

In 1981 several changes were introduced after the full-term evaluation of the educational programmes under the NESP was made. These changes consisted of the inclusion of grades IV and V in primary schools, revision of subjects in the curriculum, streamlining of vocational education and reorganization of the administrative structure. There was an attempt to enlist greater popular participation and to decentralize powers and functions. The Regional Directorates and District Education Offices were vested with greater powers and responsibilities. Accordingly, the Education Act of 1971 has been amended to give more power to the school managing committees and to make provision for private schools.

The Government considers primary education one of the 'basic needs of the people' and of the objectives of its development plans. The constitution of 1962 stated that any measure instituted for the welfare of children and women would be treated as a measure of public welfare, reflecting a concern for the wellbeing of children in general. The NESP stresses the need for promoting primary education and making extensive educational facilities available, especially in the rural and remote areas, on an egalitarian basis.

Present structure of education

The structure of school-level education in Nepal from 1971 to 1980 as prescribed by the NESP was as follows:

Primary : grades I to III
Lower Secondary : grades IV to VII
Secondary : grades VIII to X

The revised form of this structure is as follows :

Primary : grades I to V (for pupils 6 to 10 years old)
Lower Secondary : grades VI to VII (for pupils 11 and 12 years old)
Secondary : grades VIII to X (for pupils 13 to 15 years old)

The aim of primary education, as stated in the NESP, is to impart literacy and develop habits of good health and discipline. The objective of lower secondary education is to develop character and promote respect for work, and that of secondary education is to prepare students for higher education..

The three-grade primary system was conceived by the NESP as a scheme for providing minimum education to a large number of children at low cost. However, this structure was ineffective in remote and backward areas because most of the children there who finished three years' primary school had no access to lower secondary facilities and the 9-or 10-year-old children were too young to go to a distant school.

Although pre-primary education has not been included in the present school structure, considerable interest has been shown in this level, particularly in urban areas. In Nepal, pre-primary education is not the responsibility of the Government but of private individuals or organizations operating with the permission of the District Education Office. Their schools do not receive any grants-in-aid from the national exchequer. Pre-primary schools have been established in large numbers in Kathmandu and other major towns by popular initiative. Expatriate teachers are mostly found engaged in establishing these schools, which charge high tuition fees but usually provide better service because of the limited number of students they take in. The urban demand for these schools is growing every year.

Primary education administration

The National Panchayat is the highest legislative body and gives directives on national policy matters. The laws and policies passed by the National Panchayat come into effect after the approval of the King.

The National Planning Commission makes national-level plans in the total context of national development and sets targets for educational development in its sectoral plans as well. Presently Nepal is in the implementation stage of its Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-1985).

The National Education Committee is chaired by the Minister of Education. It evaluates current national education programmes, conducts educational research, assesses the country's educational needs, explores available resources and formulates plans, policies and programmes in all aspects of education.

The Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) is the central executive body in the education sector. The MOEC has the responsibility of administering the educational affairs of the country in the context of national development and in line with national policy. It is responsible for plans, policies, decisions, programmes, and implementation in the field of education. The Ministry has three major divisions: (i) the Planning Division, which looks after statistics, programmes, budgeting, Unesco affairs and population education; (ii) the Educational Administration Division, which is responsible for school education, special education, women's education and adult education; and (iii) the General Administration Division, which is responsible for personnel at the central, regional and district levels as well as for publicity, public relations, and property management.

At the regional level, there is a Regional Education Directorate based at the headquarters of each of the five development regions of the country. These Directorates are responsible for regional planning, administration, implementation and co-ordination.

Under the Regional Directorates there are District Education Offices for each of the 75 districts of the country. These Offices are responsible for implementing the educational programmes at the district level, distributing government grants, supervising the schools and distribution of textbooks, approving establishment of new schools according to the quota fixed by the Regional Directorates, and maintaining educational quality and standards in the schools.

At the local level there are school managing committees responsible for a host of activities that include mobilizing resources and making sure that schools are running smoothly. Presently the Government is giving the school managing committees more powers and making them responsible for the opearation of the schools. The aim behind this policy is to ensure more effective participation from people at the local level.

Planning. The National Planning Commission sets guidelines for the Ministry of Education in terms of long-term targets and priorities. It follows the resolutions of the National Development Council and the National Panchayat Social Committee. The National Education Committee determines educational policies, plans, and programmes to be implemented by the MOEC. The Planning Division of MOEC formulates annual and periodic plans, and works in co-ordination with the Planning Commission, Finance Ministry and other related agencies. The Regional Education Directorates represent the educational needs of the regions and the districts to the Ministry.

Educational plans are usually prepared at the national level and in aggregate terms. Local-level planning is left to the grass-roots level, where the District Education Office and the school managing committees play an important role.

Planning of primary education is done along with that for other levels of education. Given general guidelines by the National Planning Commission and the National Education Committee, the Ministry of Education works out the planning details. Documents are prepared nationally, and the regional and district breakdowns and targets are worked out in the annual programmes prepared by MOEC.

Since primary schools in the public sector have to be fully financed by the Government, the establishment of new schools needs to be properly planned and regulated. Quotas of new schools to be established in different districts are fixed in the anual plans on the basis of national policy priority.

The location of new schools was determined on the basis of need and suitability by following a school mapping system during the implementation stage of the NESP (1971-1976). This proved difficult to follow strictly as more and more schools had to be built each year as a result of the growing public demand.

When a local proposal for a new school is made, the District Education Office sends officers to examine the area and make a recommendation, using available quotas. If the school is approved, it is first built to accommodate one or two grades only and later the subsequent three grades are added by stages, provided the local people assist in the construction.

For curriculum development, there is the Curriculum, Textbook and Supervision Development Centre (CTSDC) which is a unit of the Ministry of Education and Culture. The Centre handles the design of curriculum and the preparation of textbooks for all grades.

The Education Act of 1980 allocated to school managing committees the responsibilities of managing and financing schools, mobilizing local resources and monitoring teachers' performance.

Teacher training. In 1975 the total number of primary school teachers in Nepal was 18,874, and by 1980 this had grown to 27,805. With the gradual integration of grades IV and V in the primary level, it is expected that nearly half the lower secondary teachers will be transferred to primary school duties. From 1980 to 1982, 782 new primary schools were established and 300 more were proposed for 1982 and 1983. Despite vigorous efforts, about two thirds of the primary school teachers still remain untrained.

About one third of the teachers do not even have the necessary school leaving certificate (SLC) qualification. Even among those who do, one third are still untrained. In addition, primary school enrolment has been increasing rapidly and with it the number of primary school teachers required is bound to increase. With the backlog of teachers that have to be trained, the addition of more primary school teachers has made it necessary to intensify training measures.

The Institute of Education conducts one- and two- year teacher training programmes for those who have passed the SLC. Those completing the one-year programme become trained primary school teachers, and those completing the two-year programme become trained lower secondary school teachers. Because grades IV and V are now being integrated in the primary level, some of the teachers who complete the two-year course will teach at the primary level. The Institute of Education also conducts 'B-level' primary teacher training for teachers who have not completed high school. Such programmes are run in the campuses of the Insititute at Teharathum, Dhankuta, Pokhara, Butwal, Dang, Nepalgunj and Doti. Another special programme of the Institute is the Remote Area Teacher Training Programme, through which teachers in remote mountain districts are prepared for the SLC and given primary teacher training.

Under the Equal Access of Women to Education Project, operational in Dhankuta, Pokhara and Nepalgunj, girls in remote areas who have not completed secondary school are trained as primary school teachers with the 'B-level' teacher training curriculum. This programme hopes to increase the number of women teachers in primary schools. The Presence of women teachers in a school normally tends to motivate parents to send their children to that school.

The Institute also runs a Distance Learning (correspondence) teacher training programme for teachers without the SLC. This programme also uses the 'B-level' curriculum. A pre-training orientation programme, provision of self-learning materials, monthly contact sessions and a final examination are the main features of this programme.

A radio teacher training programme is run by the Ministry of Education and Culture for underqualified and untrained primary teachers. Self-learning materials and radios are supplied to the enrolled teachers. Contact sessions are arranged in the campuses of the Institute of Education, where final examinations are held.

Programmes like distance learning, radio education teacher training and remote area training make it possible for local teachers to remain at home and continue their teaching work. This should help train local teachers who can replace the teachers who have come from outside the districts. It is often observed that teachers from urban areas or outside the districts tend to be absent frequently from their jobs.

The Ministry of Education and Culture frequently organizes short-term training programmes for school headmasters and subject-specific workshops for various levels of teachers and supervisors.

The introduction of education as a vocational subject in the secondary school in 1971 was expected to help produce primary school teachers in large numbers. There were a number of general and vocational schools offering this subject. However, anticipated supply of primary school teachers was not met because students who completed high school invariably wanted to continue their studies, and were little inclined to follow teaching careers.

The curriculum for the teacher training programmes is developed by the Institute of Education with the co-operation of related subject specialists. Workshops are organized for this purpose. Subject committees are formed to discuss the curriculum and various related agencies provide suggestions regarding content. Recent subjects like Education for Rural Development, Environmental Education and Population Education have been influential in the primary teacher training programmes.

Supervision. The NESP stressed the importance of a well-organized supervision system to improve the quality of instruction in the schools. The instructional system that existed before the implementation of the NESP concentrated on administrative control of the schools and had little impact on the improvement of instruction.

In 1971 a supervision section was created in the Ministry of Education. It was later integrated in the Curriculum Development Centre in 1979, and the Centre was renamed the Curriculum, Textbook and Supervision Development Centre (CTSDC). Supervisors for primary and secondary education were appointed and assigned to the District Education Offices. Specialists in different subjects have also been appointed in the Regional Directorates since 1979.

The supervisors are responsible for examining the physical facilities of the schools and checking whether the teaching staff is adequate and up to standard in their performance. They also evaluate the instructional standard at each level of education. The supervisory guide published by the Ministry of Education expanded these functions to include evaluating the appropriateness of the curriculum and the use of textbooks, conveying official instructions to the teachers, providing essential school facilities, evaluating the standard of instruction and learning, determining whether schools are operating according to Government rules and regulations, motivating teachers to perform effectively, and helping them in their instruction.

The supervisors who visit the primary schools are required to have an intermediate degree (SLC plus two years of education) in teacher training arts or other subjects. The supervisors receive a field allowance and compensation amounting to 33 per cent of their salary to cover expenses incurred in the field for their required 25-day visits.

Textbooks and instructional materials

Curriculum and textbooks are prescribed by the Ministry of Education. The CTSDC prepares the curriculum, which is discussed and approved by a high-level committee under the chairmanship of the Minister of Education. This committee is composed of teachers and subject specialists.

Manuscripts for textbooks are selected on a competitive basis and submitted for approval to a committee headed by the Member Secretary of the National Education Committee. Authors of books judged to be of an outstanding nature are given additional monetary awards. The printing of textbooks is the responsibility of the Janak Education Material Centre, Limited, which works under the general supervision of the Ministry of Education and Culture. Distribution of textbooks is also the responsibility of the Centre. The Centre has its own regional sales depots and operates through the commercial agencies, mainly the Sajha.* All books are sold at no-profit-no-loss rates. Primary school textbooks (grades I to III) are supplied free of charge, and the expenses are borne by the government. UNICEF assistance is also available for the free textbook distribution scheme.

Some educational materials are distributed to the schools by the CTSDC through the Regional Directorates. These materials include science and sports materials. The primary schools receive only a small portion of the total materials distribution to schools. Some educational materials are made available to the primary schools through the Integrated Rural Development Projects. Seven such projects are in operation in different parts of the country.

Educational media and technology

There is much room for improvement in the standards of instruction in primary schools, especially in the rural areas. Lack of suitable buildings, adequate resources and trained teachers are the major causes of the stereotyped form of classroom instruction that depends almost exclusively on lectures.

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* A semi-government concern for corporate publication acting as the sole agent for selling JEMC books.

Radio broadcasting for schools has been in operation since 1973 and has steadily been extended to more and more districts. The broadcasting programme was started in order to supplement classroom instruction with interesting lessons based on the textbooks. The potential of radio is great in a country like Nepal with difficult topography and a shortage of instructional materials and qualified teachers in the rural areas.

The radio broadcasting programme is handled by the Audio-visual Division of the CTSDC, which is under the Ministry of Education and Culture. Programmes are broadcast for grades I through V in four subject areas. Radio sets are distributed to the schools.

School broadcasting, however, has not been fully synchronized with the need and level of classroom instruction. The Radio Education Teacher Training Programme is being used to train in-service primary school teachers with no access to training facilities. This programme concentrates on the preparation of self-learning materials, radio broadcasts, distribution of radios to the enrolled teachers, and staff training. By 1982, 2000 inservice teachers had been trained under this programme.

Financing of primary education

Public expenditure on education has been increasing since the implementation of the NESP in 1971. The proportion of development expenditure allotted for education reached 12.4 per cent in 1976, and thereafter declined slightly. In recent years it has remained steady at about 9 per cent.

The Government is committed to paying the full salary of all primary school teachers. A substantial amount of the national education budget goes to this item. In 1980 and 1981, out of the total education budget of Rs. 429.68 million, 26.6 percent was allotted to primary education and the bulk of this went to teachers' salaries. In 1982 and 1983, 26.76 per cent of the total education budget was earmarked for primary education, of which the majority was meant for teachers' salaries. The portion of total expenditure for primary education is difficult to determine because the budgetary allocation for CTSDC and several other related units have some bearing on primary education.

Public expenditure for the construction of primary school buildings is insignificant. Free primary textbook distribution involves a considerable amount of money, and this is increasing with the increase in the number of students.

UNICEF provides some nourishing food to children in a few primary schools. School uniforms have been essential in many urban schools, but these have to be supplied by the guardians of the children.

Local support played a major role in school financing in the years prior to the implementation of the NESP. This support consisted of donations, income from land endowments, contributions from local panchayats, voluntary labour and other services performed by the local people. After 1971 there was a significant decline in local contributions. The Education Act Amendments of 1980 were partly motivated by a concern to reactivate local support for education.

School buildings

Inadequate physical facilities remain the major problem in the primary schools in Nepal. The local people have constructed primary school buildings throughout the country, but the quality of these buildings has been poor. As enrolment has gone up, school space has become inadequate.

One of the major constraints in the provision of school buildings has been the lack of roofing materials. Since 1974, UNICEF has provided roofing materials to schools in panchayats that have requested them. These donations have been instrumental in generating local participation in improving the physical facilities of the schools. It is now necessary to consult local communities about the types of buildings needed and the standards to be maintained. However, most of the primary school buildings are still in poor condition.

Some districts, mainly in the Terai, have better access to building materials and are better able to help build physical facilities. Primary school buildings in most places consist of two or three rooms to accommodate 20 to 40 students per class. The buildings have mud floors with mat flooring, often leaky roofs, no furniture, and poor lighting. In some cases student crowding is so bad that the area per student is less than one third of a square metre.

The task of providing buildings that meet suitable standards is immense, but the government's support has been minimal and the local communities cannot provide all the resources. The shortage of school buildings is a serious problem that has adversely affected both the learning process and the teachers' morale.

Community participation in primary education

Local communities contribute to the schools in a number of ways. Community participation is institutionalized in the school management committees. Local communities actively canvas for the establishment of new schools and upgrading of the existing ones. Since the introduction of the lump-sum grant system, more contributions have come from local communities, although the Government is responsible for meeting the full salary costs of all primary school teachers. In the past, voluntary teaching was quite a common form of contribution, but it is rare these days.

Chapter Two

AN ANALYSIS OF THE PROGRESS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN NEPAL

With the implementation of the NESP in 1971, a new phase of educational development began in Nepal. The Plan introduced a short-cycle primary education of three grades in order to extend literacy among a large number of children within a short period and at lower cost. From 1970 to 1980, primary education made substantial progress. The government followed a liberal policy in establishing schools, met 100 per cent of teachers' salaries and introduced free primary education and free textbooks.

Growth in enrolment

During the period from 1970 to 1980, primary school enrolment rose by nearly 16 per cent annually. Since 1981, primary schools have been gradually converted into five-grade schools, so that enrolments in grades IV and V have begun to be included in the total primary enrolment. The details of enrolment growth from 1970 to 1982 are given in the table below.

Enrolment pattern in primary schools

Year	No. of primary schools	Enrolment			
		Total	Male	Female	% of females
1970	7275	408,471	343,719	64,752	15.8
1975	8314	458,516	374,508	84,008	18.3
1980	10130	1,067,912	768,400	299,512	28.0
1981	10628	1,388,001	1,014,265	373,736	26.9
1982	10912	1,474,698	1,067,736	406,962	27.6

Between 1970 and 1980, the total number of primary schools increased by 30.3 per cent, enrolment by 161.4 per cent, and the number of teachers by 48.9 per cent. From 1980 to 1982, 782 more schools were built and 406,786 more students enrolled.

Primary school enrolment ratio. Enrolment ratio data up to 1980 were reported with reference to grades I to III, but from 1981 onwards, with reference to grades I through IV. The rate of progress in the primary school enrolment ratio is indicated below.

Year	Enrolment ratios in percentage	Corresponding age-group
1970	32	6 – 10 years
1975	43.4	6 – 8 years
1980	90.4	6 – 8 years
1981	65.4	6 – 10 years
1982	68.3	6 – 10 years

The primary school enrolment ratio steadily rose after 1975. In 1980 it reached a little over 90 per cent. This ratio referred to the three-grade primary enrolment and to children from 6 to 8 years-old. The 1981 change in the structure of primary education necessitated the revision of these ratios. When calculated with reference to the enrolment of grades I-V and to children of 6 to 10 years old, the ratios are predictably lower. Hence the primary school enrolment in 1982 is only 68.3 per cent despite the numerical growth of primary school enrollees.

Because of a marked difference between the ages of enrolled students and the officially fixed school-going ages for different grades, the enrolment ratios should not be taken as exact. In remote areas, many parents do not have birth records and are not sure of their children's ages. This leads to the enrolment of many over-age students.

The Sixth Five-Year Development Plan (1980-1985) has fixed the target of 75 per cent primary school enrolment for grades I-V by the end of the period. The pattern of growth in primary school enrolment up to 1982 was so remarkable that this target percentage should not be deemed over-ambitious. The achievement can be attributed both to the ever-increasing demand for education among the people and to measures taken to set up new schools.

Enrolment of girls. The proportion of girls in primary school has not gone up in the same ratio as that of the total enrolment, though there has been an upward trend since 1975.

The reasons for low participation of girls in school are mostly socio-economic in nature, and include involvement in household work, taking care of babies, low motivation among parents to send girls to school, and not enough awareness on the part of the parents of the facilities offered by the Government. The drop-out rate is also more pronounced among girl students.

Disparities are obvious in the breakdown of enrolment ratios by sex. In 1981 the enrolment ratio for boys was 95 per cent, whereas for girls it was only 35 per cent. Since there is no exact age-grade correspondence and there are a number of over-age children in each grade, the high ratio for boys does not reflect the large number of school-age children still not admitted to school.

A number of measures have been taken to increase girls' enrolment. These include attempts by community leaders and community workers to persuade parents to send girls to school, establishment of schools closer to girls' homes, appointment of women teachers, and the provision of free education and free textbooks in remote districts. Women primary teachers are being trained and their academic level upgraded under the Equal Access of Women to Education programme.

Enrolment patterns in rural and urban areas. Nepal is a predominantly rural country, with 94 per cent of its people living in villages. All over the country there are only 29 town panchayats, and these are counted as the urban areas. Yet it is rather difficult to draw the line between urban and rural areas because a large number of the urban areas are actually close enough to rural life to be considered semi-urban.

Educational institutions, especially primary schools, are distributed all over the country on the basis of equity and social justice. In the post-NESP period a greater number of primary schools have been established with Government assistance in rural areas, especially in remote districts.

In major towns like Kathmandu and Biratnagar, a large number of privately-run pre-primary and primary schools have sprung up. The escalating demand for these private schools is striking, since they are often far from the children's homes and charge a high rate of tuition, in contrast to the more accessible and free public primary schools. Enrolments in urban areas have naturally risen due to a greater level of awareness among the people and the availablility of facilities.

In most rural areas, however, the custom of sending children to school has not spread as widely because of the engagement of children in domestic chores, caste feelings and lack of understanding of the value of education. Nevertheless, considering the original condition of education in the villages, primary school enrolment in rural areas has been significant enough to allow room for optimism.

Distribution of primary education facilities

Nepal has adopted a policy of balanced regional development since the beginning of the Fifth Plan (1975-1980), with a view to ensuring a more equitable distribution of investment all over the nation. The country is divided into five development regions, each covering portions of the three geographical belts – Mountain, Hills and Terai.

The total population and the population of the primary education age-group in each region are shown in the table below, which is derived from the 1981 census. Children from 6 to 10 years old make up 14 per cent of the total population in the country.

Regional distribution of population

Development region	Population of the region	Percentage of the nation's total population	Population of primary education age-group
Eastern	3,708,923	24.69	519,249
Central	4,909,357	32.68	687,310
Western	3,128,859	20.83	438,040
Mid-western	1,955,611	13.02	273,786
Far-western	1,320,089	8.78	184,812
Total	15,022,839	100.00	2,103,197

The above distribution of population can be compared with the distribution of primary schools and enrolment in the five regions in 1981.

Enrolment by region in 1981

Development region	Primary schools	Percentage of national total	Primary school enrolment	Percentage of national total
Eastern	2,531	23.8	354,081	25.5
Central	2,882	27.1	424,141	30.6
Western	2,682	25.2	373,993	26.9
Mid-western	1,562	14.7	144,134	10.4
Far-western	971	9.1	91,652	6.6
Total	10,628	100.0	1,388,001	100.0

There is an obvious correspondence between population distribution and distribution of schools and enrolment. The Far-western and Central Regions lag behind other regions in enrolment percentage in relation to their population size.

Education in remote areas

Eighteen of Nepals' 75 districts are remote districts deserving special treatment from the Government in terms of development investment. In some cases it is the entire district and in other cases certain parts of the district that are considered remote and inaccessible.

The percentage of primary enrolment in these remote districts is as follows:

Enrolment ratio in remote districts

District	Enrolment ratio	District	Enrolment ratio
1. Taplejung	76.0	10. Sankhuwasabha	79.3
2. Solukhumbu	60.1	11. Dolakha	54.7
3. Sindhupalchowk	51.4	12. Rasuwa	62.8
4. Dhading	59.7	13. Gorkha	98.0

District	Enrolment ratio	District	Enrolment ratio
5. Manang	69.7	14. Mustang	84.2
6. Dolpa	58.1	15. Kalikot	42.6
7. Mugu	52.2	16. Humla	54.8
8. Bajhang	51.7	17. Darchula	67.3
9. Bajura	49.7	18. Jumla	40.7

Some districts have enrolment ratios above the national average, but most of the district ratios are lower than the national average. Even in those districts with high ratios, there are problems of low attendance, shorter school sessions due to climatic factors, poor school buildings, lack of qualified teachers and inadequate resources. In these remote areas, primary schools are established even when the minimum number of students required is not available, in order to maximize access to facilities. The primary schools in these areas were allowed to incorporate grades IV and V even before the first five-grade structure had been adopted.

To meet the shortage of teachers in remote areas, local teachers are trained and an incentive allowance is paid to teachers from outside the districts. This allowance amounts to a maximum of 110 per cent of their salaries. Local teachers also get as an incentive an allowance equivalent to 100 per cent of their salaries. Teachers working in remote districts are allowed to appear privately at the SLC examination The Remote Area Teacher Training Programme at Jumla provides in-service teacher training. Free textbooks were made available to remote area primary school students as early as 1971, eight years before they were available to students of other districts.

Institutional development

The establishment of a primary school is determined on the basis of demand from local communities, available quota for new Government-assisted schools, the number of school-age children in a given locality and the criterion of providing educational facilities in backward areas. Consequently the number of primary schools increased from 321 in 1951 to 10,628 in 1981. However, there are also quite a number of privately operated schools in many parts of the country.

No reliable data about the size of schools is available. However, most of the schools are small, with one or two teachers. This is fewer than the quota allotted because it is difficult to get suitable teachers in the remote areas, especially in the Hills districts. In a survey of 67 primary schools conducted by CERID in 1981, three schools (five per cent of the total) had one teacher only, 39 schools (43 per cent) two teachers, and the remaining 35 schools (32 per cent) more than two teachers. A primary school in the eastern Terai district of Jhapa has 308 students, and one in the Mountation district of Dolpa has only 28 students. Because of the straggling pattern of population in the Mountains districts, the average enrolment figures for primary schools there are much lower than in the Terai and hills. The average number of students per primary grade in remote areas was 31.5, according to the survey mentioned above.

Non-enrolment

At present nearly 30 per cent of the primary education age-group is out of school. If the large number of over-age students, for which, statistics are not available, is discounted, the proportion of out-of-school primary school-age children will be even higher.

The problem of non-enrolment is related to the socio-economic conditions of the people, the topography of the country and the lack of trained teachers. Among some ethnic groups like the Tharus, less developed communities like the Chepangs, and under-privileged caste groups like the Damais and Sarkis, education has not become as popular as was expected. This problem is generally more acute in rural and remote areas. Despite the establishment of schools in convenient locations and the provision of free primary education and free textbooks up to grade III, many parents do not send their children to school.

A large number of out-of-school children are girls. The main reasons for this are the need for children to assist with household work, the lack of awareness among adults in rural areas, about the value of primary education, and the lack of female teachers in schools.

Low parent expectations of school education are a major cause of non-enrolment. Parents do not foresee high returns in terms of employment and better living conditions from a few years' schooling, and they are even less likely to see the value of secondary education.

Retention of students

The total wastage rate due to drop-outs and school repeaters is very high, especially from grade I to grade II. In 1980 the wastage rate was 53 per cent. According to a sample survey, the repetition rate at grade I varied from 42 to 46 per cent in the Mountain, Hills and Terai districts, and the drop-out rate ranged from 19 to 25 per cent.

Drop-out and repetition rates

Area	Grade	Percentage of drop-outs	Percentage of repeaters
Mountain	I	20.9	42.1
	II	12.3	19.1
	III	25.6	11.2
Hills	I	25.6	45.9
	II	19.4	15.1
	III	12.8	10.3
Terai	I	19.0	43.4
	II	12.4	15.8
	III	8.5	4.2

Source: New ERA: *Impact of Free Textbook Distribution on Enrolment*, 1980, pp. 12-16.

The high repetition rate in grade I can be explained partly by the fact that the children have first to learn the alphabet and the numerals, which is difficult and time-consuming. The grade I textbooks do not teach the alphabet but include work based on previous knowledge of the alphabet. In the predominantly non-literate environment in the rural areas, the first grade textbooks cannot be introduced immediately to the beginners. In addition, in order to ensure national integration the primary textbooks are all written in Nepali, but nearly 48 per cent of the people speak a mother tongue other than Nepali. Primary school textbooks for these children are difficult at the initial stage.

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Rural schools have a good record of student admission in grade I but attendance is very irregular and in most areas, one third of the students drop out within ten months. Dropping out in one year and seeking re-admission in the same grade the following year is a common phenomenon. The causes of the high drop-out rate, as well as that for repetition, are parental indifference, poor health of the children, involvement of children in household work and poor teaching. Distance from school is also an important factor, especially in the Hills districts, where the terrain is difficult.

Because of the high wastage, an estimated six pupil years are required to produce a student who has completed three grades. This means an efficiency rate of only about fifty per cent for primary education.

The problem of wastage is also related to poor attendance. Student attendance in rural schools is unduly irregular because of the frequent absence of teachers, the casual attitude of children and their parents towards education, and weather and road conditions.

Another problem related to that of wastage is the underachievement of those who complete the primary grades. A recent study showed that grade III completers performed at the achievement level of grade II only, and that many primary school completers were unable to apply numerical and literacy skills. It has been found that a large number of children lapse into illiteracy after leaving school.

Teaching staff

Qualification. In 1981 there were 29,134 primary school teachers in the country, and only 10,585 (36.3 per cent) were trained. In 1982 the number of teachers rose to 32,259. The increase reflected the appointment of new teachers for lower secondary (grades IV and V), as well as the partial transfer of lower secondary teachers to primary school duties. The next table indicates the number of teachers who have attained various levels of qualification.

The majority of teachers have graduated from secondary school with the SLC, technically the minimum qualification required for a primary school teacher, but about one third have not. In remote areas, most teachers have passed only grade VIII or IX. In these regions local teachers are not available in adequate numbers and teachers from other districts are often unwilling to work in remote areas. Those who do go there from other districts are often absent from school for long periods. The local school authorities are helpless to change the situation.

Training profile of primary teachers

	1981		1982	
	Total	Trained	Total	Trained
Under-S.L.C.	9,717	2,829	10,466	3,974
S.L.C.	18,801	6,510	20,078	7,038
I.A.	559	219	1,494	435
B.A.	51	25	211	78
M.A.	6	3		
	29,134	9,586	32,249	11,525

Women teachers. Of the 29,134 primary school teachers working in 1981, 2,666 (or 9.2 per cent) were women. The distribution of these teachers by development region in 1981 was as follows:

Percentage of women teachers

Region	Total no. of teachers	No. of women teachers	Percentage of women in total teaching staff
Eastern	7,262	694	9.6
Central	8,030	977	12.2
Western	8,026	677	8.4
Mid-western	3,461	246	7.1
Far-western	2,355	72	3.1
	29,134	2,666	9.2

The largest proportion of primary school women teachers is in the Central Region, but there are fairly large numbers in the Eastern and Western Regions as well. In the remaining areas, especially in the Far-western Region, the percentage is very low.

According to the evaluation done by CERID of the Equal Access of Women to Education Programme, the appointment of women teachers is beneficial in increasing girls' enrolment because it encourages parents to send their daughters to school.

The Government has organized a special teacher training programme for girls in grades VI and VII in remote areas. These girls are given a three-or four-year scholarship for both secondary education and teacher training, after which they will go teach in communities where enrolment of girls is very low.

Supervisory staff

The number of supervisors to be appointed in each district is fixed on the basis of the number of schools. In 1979 there were primary school supervisors named and this number has not increased since. Each supervisor in the Kathmandu valley and the Terai is responsible for 40 schools, and in the Hills and Mountain areas where transportation is more difficult, each supervisor must visit 30 schools. This number is inadequate to cover all the schools in the country.

The posts of primary school supervisors have been filled with people who have an intermediate level of college education but no experience in teaching and no professional training in education. The supervisors are relatively young and are often in the position of supervising teachers more experienced and knowledgeable than they are Consequently, the supervisors occupy themselves mainly with administrative work in the office and with the collection of data on enrolment and facilities in schools they visit.

The full-term evaluation of the NESP in 1980 analyzed the functions and responsibilities of the supervisors. It emphasized that the main function of supervisors was to introduce new teaching ideas and to oversee the effectiveness of innovative projects. The report recommended that several of the functions earlier assigned to the supervisors should be taken up by other functionaries; for example, seminars and workshops should be held by specialists in the Regional Directorate, administrative inspection should be done by the District Education Officer, and physical facilities should be checked by the headmasters. It was also recommended that districts be divided into supervision areas, each containing a number of schools of different levels. A secondary school supervisor assisted by primary supervisors would supervise the schools in a particular supervision area. Each area would have an annual programme for instructional improvements. Primary supervisors could be promoted to secondary supervisors and ultimately all primary schools would be supervised by secondary supervisors. The post of primary supervisor would be gradually phased out. At present the idea of supervision areas is being implemented in selected districts, but results of the innovation are not yet known.

There are two main institutions that provide in-service training to supervisors. These are the Institute of Education (IOE) at Tribhuvan University and the CTSDC. The IOE runs two-to three-month training programmes and the CTSDC seminars of one or two weeks. The CTSDC has been entrusted with the preparation of supervision manuals and the evaluation of the supervisory system. The Regional Directorates also conduct periodic training workshops for supervisors.

Curriculum

The objectives of primary education are literacy, a sense of discipline and habits of healthful living. In grades I to III three subjects, Nepali, social studies and mathematics, are taught. At grades IV and V four new subjects, English, Sanskrit, science, and physical education are added. The number of periods per week for each subject is listed on the next page.

There is a demand from many parents for introducing English from the first grade and the absence of English in the first three grades of the public schools is one factor that has led to the popularity of private primary schools. The NESP, however, gave less emphasis to the teaching of English to young children than to the need for national integration, for which a common language is necessary.

Recently there has been a movement to include in the primary school curriculum subjects related to rural development, common vocations, population education, environmental education and the equality of women. If education is to involve a change in the learners' attitudes and behaviour in addition to the acquisition of knowledge and skills, it is important that the curriculum focus on education for life. The primary curriculum has to be made more relevant in order to encourage parents to send their children to school.

Curriculum in primary schools

			Grades		
Subject	I	II	III	IV	V
Nepali	12	12	14	8	8
English	–	–	–	7	7
Sanskrit	–	–	–	2	2
Social studies	6	6	7	6	6
Science and health	–	–	–	4+2	4+2
Mathematics	9	9	10	6	6
Drawing/painting	3	3	4	–	–
Physical education	–	–	–	2	2
Moral education	–	–	–	2	2
Total periods	30	30	35	39	39

Primary education for special populations

Low-caste groups. There are many communities in the country that are educationally less developed. Untouchability is legally banned but caste considerations often play a part in social interations. Opportunities for education tend to be sharply limited for the low-caste groups. Caste disadvantages go hand in hand with poor economic conditions, and thus illiteracy is inherited from generation to generation.

Educationally deprived or isolated ethnic groups. There are certain ethnic groups like the Satar, Danuwar, Chepang, Bhote, Sherpa, Magar and Tharu that are educationally much behind other socio-ethnic groups. Efforts to promote education among these communities still need to be made.

The 18 mountain districts of Nepal, with their adverse weather condtions, rugged terrain and lack of resources, are mostly inhabited by Bhotes, Rais, Limbus and Gurungs. Among the measures to promote education for these populations are an incentive allowance for teachers, establishment of schools even if the required minimum number of students is not available, programmes for training local teachers, training of women teachers and provision of scholarships.

The rural poor. The majority of the people in Nepal live in rural areas and are engaged in subsistence agriculture and related activities. It is estimated that about 40 per cent of the people in the country live below the poverty line. The rural poor are often landless or own small pieces of land only. They have to leave home for about six months a year to look for extra work. These poor farmers are almost invariably illiterate, and rarely send their children to school. Various organizations have launched programmes to improve the living conditions of the rural poor, but such programmes are inadequate in view of the magnitude of the problem.

The urban poor. The phenomenon of slums on the fringes of large towns has not yet become a serious problem in Nepal, but there are numbers of socially deprived children who have little access to regular primary education. Several social welfare organizations have programmes designed for orphans and children from destitute homes. There is an SOS Children's Village in the Kathmandu valley. Bal Mandirs, or 'Children's Homes', are established in almost all the districts of the country. These homes provide pre-primary and primary education to children who belong mainly to lower socioeconomic groups. The Underprivileged Children's Education Programme (UCEP) runs for street boys and boys working in food service an acclerated programme of elementary education and skills training in various trades. There are several other educational and skills training programmes for stray children run by organizations like Save the Children Fund and UNICEF.

The disabled. The proportion of disabled persons in the total population is estimated to be 3 per cent. The first attempt to educate the disabled was the acceptance of 30 blind students at the Laboratory School in Kathmandu in 1964. In 1966 a school for deaf children was started by the Nepal Children's Organization, which is providing training for 110 students. The Nepal Disabled and Blind Association (NDBA) came into existence in 1967, and in 1970 opened the Khagenda New Life Centre at Jorpati, Kathmandu for 102 residents suffering from various disabilities. The NDBA has started in six schools in different parts of the country special education facilities for the deaf and the blind. The Handicapped Service Co-ordination Committee co-ordinates these programmes and activities. The International Year of the Disabled in 1981 encouraged various programmes for the disabled. Skills training for the handicapped is available in two centres, one in Kathmandu and another in Panchkhal. Establishment of regional facilities for training of handicapped is being proposed. The Human and National Development Service (HANDS) operates programmes for mentally retarded childdren in Kathmandu, Pokhara, Bhairawa and Dharan.

Non-formal education for school-age children. The present non-formal education programmes are mainly for adults who have completed primary school or have at least gained literacy. There are few programmes except those in children's homes for out-of-school primary school-age children. An experiment to introduce part-time schooling and practical training was initiated at the Lahachowk school in Kaski district in 1976. The Education for Rural Development Project in Seti has proposed a special functional literacy programme for school-age village girls, to enable them to study for two hours a day at a convenient time.

There is clearly a need to meet the educational needs, through non-formal approaches, of children who cannot attend school due to economic circumstances or other disabilities.

Chapter Three

NATIONAL POLICY AND PLANNING FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION

Overview of national policy

Popular participation has always been the backbone of the Government's policy to expand primary education . After 1951 the Government adopted the policy of partnership with the people in the expansion of primary education facilities in Nepal. People who established primary schools on their own initiative received financial grants from the Government.

There was another policy change in 1960, when the party-less panchayat system emerged. The country was divided into village panchayats at the lowest level and the government adopted the policy of providing at least one primary school to each village panchayat. This meant that there would be one primary school for each 3000 people on the average. The people of the village panchayats took the initiative in establishing primary schools by constructing school buildings and providing furniture and other physical facilities.

With the introduction of the NESP, His Majesty's Government reduced the duration of primary education from five years to three. This has made possible an increase in the primary school enrolment from 32 per cent in 1970 to 87 per cent in 1980. The inclusion in 1981 of grades IV and V in the primary education level was adopted in view of the practical difficulties involved in providing educational facilities in rural areas and of the academic inadequacy of the three-year package. His Majesty's Government has also adopted the policy of allowing private primary schools to operate. These schools are obliged to use nationally-prescribed curriculum and textbooks but are authorized to teach English and other subjects as long as the objectives set in the primary school curriculum are met.

Free and compulsory primary education programmes of the 1960s

After his Majesty King Birendra Bir Bikram Shah declared primary education free on the occasion of his coronation, the Government unertook a programme in the mid-1960s to implement free and compulsory primary education in the country.

Under this programme the village panchayats were authorized to receive a certain percentage of land revenue from the government to finance local primary schools, and town panchayats were authorized to raise some taxes to operate primary schools. Special legal provision was made to decentralize the operation of the primary school system and the village and town panchayats appointed teachers and paid their salaries. Three regional offices of the Chief Inspector of Schools were created to administer and supervise the programme.

Quite a few town panchayats and some district panchayats participated in this programme. The town panchayats of Dharan, Pokhara and Tansen were fairly successful, as were the districts of Chitwan and Jhapa, but the overall effectiveness of the programme was never evaluated systematically. Records indicate that the programme was fairly successful in enrolling children of primary school age, but various technical difficulties made strict enforcement of the compulosry aspect impossible. The programme was terminated in 1971 when the Government adopted a new policy on primary education. The government is presently focusing its attention on free and universal primary education rather than efforts to impose compulosry education, for topographical, financial and managerial reasons.

The national education system plan

Primary education had already expanded by 1970, when the enrolment rate reached about 32 per cent, but numerous weaknesses were identified in the primary education sector. The standard of education was unsatisfactory, a majority of teachers were untrained and underqualified, and the schools had poor physical facilities. In view of these problems, the National Education System Plan (NESP) for 1971 to 1976 made the following proposals:

1. Primary school students should be taught reading, writing and arithmetic, some rudimentary knowledge of Nepalese

life and some information regarding the King and the country;

2. Sixty-four per cent of the boys and girls, six and eight years, old would be provided with primary education facilities;
3. Those with an SLC or its equivalent and training would be employed as primary school teachers;
4. Textbooks would be made available free to children in remote areas and at fair prices to others;
5. District-level examinations would be held at the end of each primary school term; and
6. His Majesty's Government would cover the full salary of primary school teachers.

Major policy changes were made during the implementation of the NESP. The government decided to reduce the duration of primary education from five years to three. Literacy was declared the objective of primary education, and the number of subjects in the curriculum was reduced. The Government began to pay 100 per cent of the salary of primary teachers, and the salary scale of primary teachers was raised. A target date of 64 per cent enrolment was fixed for 1976. A nominal fee was introduced in the primary schools to help meet instructional costs.

Other policy strategies for universalization

Duration of primary education. Since 1981 primary schools have been extended to include grades IV and V. This change was made largely to benefit children in remote areas who often had no access to lower secondary schools once they had completed the three years of primary school. This inconvenience has obliged children to stay out of school after grade III in spite of their parents' desire to let them continue their studies for at least a couple of years.

This revised structure has been advantageous to most of the people who live in remote areas, but it has necessitated an additional number of classrooms and adjustments in the provision, qualification, salary and status of teachers. In the previous structure, teachers who taught in grades IV through VII were categorized as lower secondary teachers and their salary and status were higher than those of primary school teachers, but the revised structure has classified them as primary teachers.

Administration and supervision. The recent Decentralization Act gave greater power to education personnel at the implementation and grass-roots levels, in order to mobilize people's participation in education. In the present set-up, much of the responsibility for planning, establishing and managing schools rests with the school managing committees. The committees are given an annual grant by the government to cover all the operational costs of running primary schools. They are responsible for appointing primary teachers on a temporary basis if permanent teachers are not available, constructing school buildings and supervising the day-to-day operation of schools.

Teacher qualifications and training. Qualified and trained primary school teachers have not been available in adequate numbers, especially in the rural and remote areas. To combat this, His Majesty's Government reduced the minimum qualification for primary teachers from SLC to under-SLC. Varying salary schedules have been adopted to allow people with different qualifications to teach in primary schools. For example, there are salary scales for trained SLC teachers, untrained SLC teachers, trained under-SLC teachers and untrained under-SLC teachers. This widening of the range of qualification for teachers has enabled the government to establish primary schools in the remotest parts of the country.

The Government is assisting the Institute of Education in running special, as well as regular, teacher training programmes to cope with the fast growing demand for primary school teachers. About 3,000 trained teachers a year graduate from the Institute's several campuses.

School facilities. Insufficient physical facilities for schools have been another major constraint. The limited resources of the government make it difficult to construct school buildings and there is a lack of building technicians for the remote areas. To address this problem, the Ministry of Education adopted the strategy of requiring local communities to construct school buildings. MOEC has prepared a prototype of a primary school building that can be adapted to local requirements.

Since panchayat workers must be active in promoting education if they want to be re-elected, they have taken active interest not only in the building of physical facilities for schools but also in the day-to-day operation of the primary schools of the community. This strategy has been effective for another reason. The local community uses locally available building materials like stone and timber and provides free labour, so that the buildings are built at no cost to the villagers. Almost all the primary school buildings in Nepal have been built by the school communities. If the government had had to shoulder the responsibility of building all the present primary school buildings, the extension of school facilities would have taken decades.

Remote and rural areas. As primary school teachers are not available in the rural areas, the government has provided a remote or rural area allowance to teachers deputed to teach in such schools. Free education up to the secondary level is provided in remote areas so that secondary school graduates will be available for primary school teaching. Scholarships had been awarded to students in remote areas, and textbooks up to grade III provided free long before this policy was adopted for students in other areas.

Enrolment of girls. The Ministry of Education and Culture has adopted a policy of giving priority to women teachers in order to encourage more girls to go into primary school teaching. This, in turn, should have a positive effect on the enrolment of girls in primary schools. Recently MOEC has made it obligatory for the school managing committees and the District Education Offices to give permanent appointments to women who have undergone training under the Equal Access of Women to Education Programme and applied to teach in their local schools.

The Government also decided to provide free textbooks to all girls in the primary grades in 18 remote areas to motivate retention of girl students.

Enrolment targets. Enrolment grew in Nepal from less than one per cent in 1950 to 32 per cent in 1970. The NESP set a 1976 target of 64 per cent enrolment in the three-year primary education system, and enrolment reached 87 per cent in 1980. When the duration of primary education was lengthened from three to five years, the enrolment percentage decreased, but efforts to extend enrolment up to grade V have been gaining momentum. The Sixth

Five-Year Plan also set the target of increasing primary age-group enrolment, and there is discussion of including a target of 100 per cent enroment in the next two five-year development plans, which will extend to 1995. With the momentum that has been maintained so far, near-universlization of primary education could well be achieved by that date.

Achieving enrolment of the remaining 20 per cent of the schoolage population will be especially difficult because these children belong to the most resistant or inaccessible groups. Primary schools are available to almost all children except those in very sparsely inhabited villages or very isolated dwellings. To cater to the needs of such children, the Government would have to establish primary schools for as few as five or ten pupils each. Motivating certain ethnic groups that have shown little interest in formal education for their children is also a difficult task. Parents in some socioeconomic brackets are reluctant to send their daughters to school, and barriers of sex discrimination are strong.

Summary of national policy

Government policy to universalize primary education in the country is summarized below:

1. Primary education will be made available to all citizens of Nepal and all primary schools will follow a uniform curriculum.
2. Though there are 12 languages and several dialects spoken in the country, Nepali is the mother tonque of 52 per cent of the population and is understood as a second language by the majority of the people. For this reason and that of the need for greater national integration, Nepali has been made the medium of instruction at all levels of school education. This policy does not preclude, however, the use of other languages in the classroom in cases when children cannot understand Nepali. Some private schools are permitted to use English as the medium of instruction, provided Nepali is also taught as a compulsory subject.
3. Primary education will be free in the public primary schools.
4. The Government will make all primary school textbooks

available to students free of charge in stages. At present, textbooks are free up to the third grade.

5. The Government will establish new primary schools every year as planned in the medium-term development plans.
6. Special allowances will be provided to teachers deputed to teach in remote areas.
7. To encourage the enrolment of girls in primary schools, the Government will give preference to girls and women in the appointment of teachers.
8. High priority will be given to establish primary schools in communities that have so far had little access to facilities.
9. One hundred per cent of the salaries of public primary school teachers will be paid by the Government.
10. In order to promote people's participation in education, communities will be encouraged to build school buildings and provide other physical facilities.

Chapter Four

SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND PROGRAMMES

Concentrated efforts are being made at all levels to achieve the goal of enrolling every child of primary school age according to the target, in spite of many hurdles. Some of the undertaking related to or having implications for the universlization of primary education in Nepal are described in this chapter.

Studies

Achievement study of primary school children. This study carried out by CERID in 1980 focused on the achievement level of primary school completers. After three years of primary school, children were expected to be able to read sentences written in simple Nepali, express simple ideas and feelings in writing and use with ease the four simple rules of arithmetic to solve everyday problems.

The study found that the mean score in the literacy test of primary school completers was only 66.1 per cent, indicating a great deal of wastage in primary education. Only 20.4 per cent of the students tested demonstrated full literacy, 21.2 per cent were semiliterate, 5.8 per cent scored as partially literate and 1.2 per cent were illiterate. The fact that 28 per cent of primary school leavers have not attained literacy should be a matter of grave concern.

Another finding was the wide disparity in the achievement of children of different regions; for example, the students in the Farwestern Region were weaker in reading, writing, and arithmetic than those in the Eastern Region. Most of the students from all regions scored poorly in solving numerical problems, and in comprehension and writing sentences. The conclusion of the study was that three years of primary school education did not impart literacy skills to a satisfactory level of proficiency.

Implications of population growth for educational development in the Central Development Region. This study aimed at assessing the impact of rapid population growth on the amount of investment required for education development. According to the findings of the study, between 1973 and 1979 primary school enrolment increased from 91,086 to 309,472, an annual growth rate of 23 per cent. The growth rate in the number of teachers was only nine per cent. This increased the teacher pupil ratio from 1:18 in 1973 to 1:43 in 1979. Assuming the current fertility rate of 6.3 in Nepal will remain constant, the projected population of school-age children for 1990 is 843,000 and for 2000, 1,143,000. The additional number of teachers required for these pupils would be 2,555 and 3,371. On the other hand, a fertility rate of only 3.0 would result in a population of school-age children of 765,000 in 1990 and 724,000 in 2000, requiring 883 and 277 additional teachers, respectively.

The above estimates point out that the present fertility rate, if allowed to continue, would adversely affect availability of education for the masses. The country already has too few teachers and a high rise in population would mean additional expenses for teachers' salaries, as well as for textbooks that would have to be distribted free of charge.

The strain on physical facilities would grow with such increased enrolment. Primary schools are already poorly equipped with furniture, and available classroom space is inadequate to allow movement necessary for learning. The study concluded that if the current rate of population growth persists for the next two decades, it will be extremely difficult to maintain even the present level of education quality.

Determinants of education participation in rural Nepal. Despite increased education facilities and opportunities, there is still low participation in educational activities, especially in rural areas. A large number of school-age children do not go to school and the number of illiterate adults is multiplying A study was undertaken by CERID with assistance from World Education/USA to determine the factors that affect people's participation in education and influence attendance in primary and secondary schools.

Some of the major findings of the study, are listed below.

1. Sex is the single most important predictor of educational participation. Boys have a participation rate 33 per cent higher than girls.
2. Age is a strong determinant of participation for primary

school-age children. For each year of age there is a 7.5 per cent increment in participation in primary schools.

3. Distance to school is a very strong predictor. In the primary age-group there is a 2.8 per cent decrement in educational participation for every kilometre between the child's home and school.
4. Primary school-age children who help in the household have a 9.3 per cent reduction in school participation.
5. Children whose families are engaged in labour or cottage industries exhibited a 6.7 per cent lower participation rate.
6. The father's level of education has a relative effect upon a child's education. An increment of one year in the father's education is likely to increase a child's participation in education by 4.5 per cent. The attitude of the head of the household toward modernity, which is partly influenced by education status, plays its part in influencing children's enrolment.
7. The language a child speaks at home is a strong factor affecting school participation and regularity of attendance.
8. The ethnicity and native language of the teacher are strongly related to the participation of rural children in education. Schools with staff representing the ethnic composition of the community have higher participation rates than those with no such staff. The presence of trained and qualified teachers has a positive effect upon higher participation.

This study deduced that concerted and unrelenting efforts towards increasing awareness, instilling positive attitudes towards education in the rural adults, and improving school facilities through the provision of suitable teachers, relevant curriculum and proximate location of schools are needed to improve people's participation in school and ultimately achieve universalization of primary education.

Primary education in Nepal. The National Education Committee recently formed a study panel composed of two district education officers, one supervisor, one representative of the NEC and the Member Secretary of the NEC, to solicit the opinions of a wide sample of people about various aspects of primary education related to its universalization and improvement. The panel has drawn up a comprehensive questionnaire and is preparing to make field visits for data collection.

Present educational structure and possible alternatives. A study of the present educational structure and possible alternatives was undertaken by CERID on behalf of MOEC. The study involved the collection of the views on this subject held by top-level educationalists, administrators and teachers. Key personnel in the field of education in Nepal participated in a seminar to discuss the findings of the study.

Some of the opinions of the interviewees and the seminar participants are listed below

1. The revised structure of primary education from three to five years' duration was positive but left a vacuum at the lower secondary level, which has been reduced to only two years. It was suggested that lower secondary be incorporated in secondary school or be prolonged, resulting in a school education structure of 5+5 or 5+3+2.
2. The establishment of nursery, kindergraten and pre-primary schools should be allowed to meet the growing demand in urban areas but they should be regulated.
3. Simultaneous efforts should be made to improve the curriculum or make it more relevant to the revised objectives of education, to prepare better-qualified and better-trained teachers and to improve physical facilities.

Growth of private pre-primary and primary schools. In spite of the fact that primary education is free, a number of private pre-primary and primary schools have come into existence, especially in urban areas, to cater to economically privileged parents interested in better education for their children. CERID undertook a study in 1982 and 1983 of the programmes materials, methods, teachers and students in such privately-run schools.

According to the results of this study, these schools are popular because the average teacher-pupil ratio is only 1:23 at the primary level. They also place greater emphasis on conversational English and give extra coaching to weaker students.

Committee for universalization of primary education. In view of the great importance of providing primary education facilities to all, a five-member committee was set up under the chairmanship of the Secretary of Education and Culture to expedite and to co-ordinate efforts towards the universalization of primary education in the country. However, the Committee has not yet made concrete plans towards the achievement of this target.

Projects and programmes

Pre-service/in-service teacher training programme. The Ministry of Education and Culture arranges, through its Teacher Training Section, training for a certain number of teachers on an annual quota basis. The training programme also includes a separate quota for education and training for students who are to be appointed as teachers of science, English and mathematics in remote districts where there is a great scarcity of teachers.

Training primary school teachers through radio. A total of 20,737 out of 32,259 primary school teachers were under-educated and untrained in 1981, according to statistics. Because about 6,000 of these teachers are based in remote and rural districts, regular institutional training cannot reach them easily. The Radio Education Teacher Training Programme was started in 1978 with assistance from USAID. One thousand teachers from 22 districts were enrolled in 1981-1982 and 2,500 teachers were enrolled from 75 districts in 1982-1983. They were loaned radio sets and provided with packages of self-instruction materials, and programmes were broadcast on regular dates. This project enables the teachers to receive training that does not interfere with their work at school.

Equal access of women to education programme. The programme has been in operation for more than a decade. It involves giving girls, especially from remote districts, training and education before they are employed as teachers in the areas they come from. The Ministry of Education and Culture has guaranteed employment for women teachers trained under this programme. In the Teaching Training Section of MOEC a cell called the Women's Education Unit is developing programmes to involve these women teachers not only in teaching in primary schools but also in acting as change agents to improve the quality of life in their communities.

Instructional improvement in primary schools. This is a three-year action research project being undertaken by CERID with the assistance of IDRC/Canada. The project includes strategies to prepare teachers for implementing student-centred and activity-oriented teaching techniques to orient parents to encourage and facilitate students' learning efforts at home and to design and develop supplementary learning materials for motivating and reinforcing students' learning. Instructional materials for teachers, students and parents have been prepared and workshops have been conducted in two districts of the country.

The workshops aim to enable the participating teachers to share ideas and experiences with a focus on possible improvements in grade I and IV textbooks for Nepali, mathematics, social studies, English, science and health. Teachers also design and develop instructional materials to supplement the textbooks and participate in discussions on instructional planning, methods of teaching, evaluation, classroom management and child development. Similar workshops have been organized for parents at the project sites to teach them techniques to help their children learn at home.

The project hopes to help the participating primary school teachers improve their style of classroom teaching. In a larger context, it is expected that these efforts will have a favourable impact on primary classroom instruction, which is currently undergoing a transition from old to modern methods.

Integrated Rural Development (IRD) projects. His Majesty's Government has adopted a policy of implementing integrated rural development programmes to systematize and accelerate the process of development.

The aim of the IRD projects is to improve the general quality of life of the people. The major thrusts lie in increasing productivity, educational and employment opportunities, nutritional standards, general awareness and people's participation in community development. The expansion and improvement of primary and adult eduction are the main objectives in the education sector of the IRD projects.

The strategies adopted to meet these objectives include improving school facilities, training teachers and providing scholarships and other incentives to disadvantaged groups such as girls, small farm families, and educationally backward communities.

There are currently seven IRD projects in 22 districts of the country. They include the:

1. Rasuwa-Nuwakot IRD Project;
2. Sagarmatha IRD Project;
3. Koshi Hill Area RD Project;
4. Mahakali IRD Project;
5. Rapti IRD Project;
6. K-BIRD Project; and
7. Integrated Hill Development Project.

The Government plans to implement IRD projects in all the 75 districts of Nepal, and feasibility studies are now being carried out

Education for Rural Development project. The ERD project initiated in 1981 is being run by the Government with the co-operation of UNDP, Unesco and UNICEF. It is based both on the NESP and on the Lahachowk project, which showed how education in one school, could promote development in the surrounding area. The project is being launched in one of the most educationally and economically backward parts of the kingdom – Doti, Bajhang and Bajura of the Seti Zone. The objectives are to made the primary and adult education systems more efficient and effective, and to help primary education teachers to become agents of change for development.

The project includes plans to improve primary education in several areas. Teaching and learning materials, including supplementary readers containing stories with development messages, will be developed and distributed. Teachers will be trained in courses ranging from half a day to 10 months.

Existing school compounds and buildings will be improved and local communites assisted in constructing new schools. There is also a component emphasizing functional action-oriented adult education.

Programme to meet basic needs of children in Nepal. In the comprehensive framework of activities under this programme, set to run from 1982 to 1986, primary education is one of the important components. UNICEF will support Nepal's enrolment target of 75 per cent of school-age children by the end of the sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985) by providing paper for all textbooks required for grades I through III. It will also assist CTSDC, JEMC and IOE in improving the capacity and quality of their services.

Chapter Five

CONCLUSION

The literacy rate in Nepal some three decades ago, when the Government initiated development plans and programmes, was less than one per cent. Since then the country has been actively engaged in providing education to the greatest number of people as expeditiously as possible, in accordance with its nation-building efforts. In the area of primary education in particular there has been a great deal of progress; so much so that in 1982 enrolment in primary schools reached 65 per cent in most rural and urban areas.

Universalization of primary education has been implicit in the directive policy of the Government for the past 30 years, although no deadline has been fixed to accomplish the task. Educational planners and personnel in Nepal have acquired sufficient experience to be able to visualize the total problem of universalization. The basic infrastructures, such as institutions for teacher training and curriculum development, necessary to allow planning for making high-quality primary education available to every child have already been established in the country. The current decentralized education system supports local initiative and encourages community participation, which can build a sense of commitment to educational development.

Many problems, however, must still be solved if effective primary education is to be made available to all school-age children. Some of the problems are peculiar to Nepal, such as the mountainous topography of one third of the country that makes walking and transportation difficult for children who live several kilometres from the nearest primary school. Many more school buildings are needed, especially in these remote areas. The socio-economic condition of the majority of the rural people is another impediment to the expansion of primary education. Some ethnic groups have social restrictions on sending girls to school. The rural parents' low literacy rate of 24 per cent prevents them from understanding the value of education except for guaranteeing employment, and they are disappointed when this is not possible. The existing administrative mechanism in Nepal is geared to the expansion of primary education, and efforts must be concentrated on enrolling girls and children in remote areas.

The other challenge educational planners face is the qualitative improvement of primary educaition. If education is to be well received by the people it must be relevant and practical. If education proves itself to be useful, fewer children will drop out, and if the primary curriculum is well planned and well taught by competent teachers, there will be fewer repeaters.

It is gratifying that the planners and policy-makers in Nepal have shown great concern and commitment in carrying out measures that will contribute to universalizing primary education. This is a good indication of the potential of the plan for fulfilment. All possible efforts will be made at the national level to ensure that one day all primary school-age children of the country will be enrolled in schools that will provide a basic and meaningful primary education

Appendix

STATISTICAL TABLES

Table 1. Estimated population in age group corresponding to primary education level in the national system

Year	Total population	Age-group population (6-10 years)[4]	Annual percentage growth rate[5]
1970[1]	11,321,625	1,586,027	
1971 (Census)	11,555,983	1,617,838	2.07
1980[2]	14,633,585	2,048,702	2.66
1981 (Census)	15,022,839	2,103,197	2.66
Projections:[3]			
1990	18,612,945	2,605,812	2.40
1995	20,568,233	2,879,553	1.05
2000	22,661,068	3,172,550	1.02

[1] Applying the intercensal growth rate (during 1961-1971) of 2.07% per annum.

[2] Applying the intercensal growth rate (during 1971-1981) of 2.66% per annum.

[3] Assuming the total fertility rate of 5 to be attained by 2000 A.D. (Present TFR is 6.6), this is regarded as a medium variant projection.

[4] The proportion of 6-10 years age-group population in the total population is 14%.

[5] The annual growth rates in the projects are derived by applying the formula:
$P_1 = P_0 (1 \div r)^t$

Table 2. Trends in primary education

	Number of primary schools			Number of students enrolled in primary schools			Number of teachers in primary education		
Year	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
1970	NA	NA	7,275	NA	NA	F. 64,752 M. 343,719	NA	NA	18,677
1975	NA	NA	8,314	NA	NA	F. 84,008 M. 374,508	NA	NA	18,847
1980	NA	NA	10,130	NA	NA	F. 299,512 M. 768,400	NA	NA	F. 2,681 M. 25,124
1981	NA	NA	10,628	NA	NA	F. 373,736 M. 1,014,265	NA	NA	F. 2,666 M. 26,468
1982	10,698	214	10,912	F. 391,310 M. 1,045,630	15,652 22,106	406,962 1,067,736	2,508 28,483	538 730	3,046 29,213

Table 3. Age, sex and grade distribution of pupils enrolled in all grades of primary education and one next higher grade year (1981)

		Grade					
Age	Sex	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	F	41 (24.7)	2 (2.2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	M	102 (24.5)	11 (4.8)	1 (0.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
7	F	46 (27.7)	21 (23.3)	3 (3.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	M	95 (22.6)	33 (14.5)	4 (2.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
8	F	25 (15.1)	20 (22.2)	23 (26.1)	3 (5.2)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	M	75 (18.0)	41 (18.1)	29 (14.7)	2 (1.4)	1 (0.8)	0 (0)
9	F	18 (10.8)	14 (15.6)	10 (11.4)	8 (13.8)	3 (9.4)	0 (0)
	M	40 (19.6)	45 (19.8)	33 (16.8)	17 (11.8)	8 (6.1)	0 (0)
10	F	18 (10.8)	20 (22.2)	20 (22.7)	16 (27.6)	6 (18.8)	0 (0)
	M	47 (11.3)	34 (15.0)	33 (16.8)	30 (20.8)	22 (16.7)	6 (6.7)
11	F	9 (5.4)	8 (8.9)	14 (15.9)	12 (20.7)	5 (15.6)	2 (9.5)
	M	24 (5.8)	28 (12.3)	32 (16.2)	34 (23.6)	17 (12.1)	14 (15.6)
12	F	7 (4.2)	4 (4.4)	14 (15.9)	11 (19.0)	12 (37.5)	8 (38.1)
	M	16 (3.8)	13 (5.7)	28 (14.2)	22 (15.3)	31 (23.5)	27 (30.0)
13	F	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (3.4)	7 (12.1)	2 (6.3)	5 (23.8)
	M	9 (2.2)	11 (4.8)	15 (7.6)	20 (13.9)	30 (22.7)	24 (26.9)

		Grade					
Age	Sex	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	F	1 (0.6)	1 (1.1)	1 (1.1)	1 (1.7)	2 (6.3)	5 (23.8)
	M	5 (1.2)	8 (3.5)	11 (5.6)	10 (6.9)	13 (9.8)	11 (12.2)
Over 15	F	1 (0.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (12.5)	1 (4.8)
	M	3 (0.7)	3 (1.3)	11 (5.6)	9 (6.3)	11 (8.3)	8 (8.9)
Total	F	166 (100)	90 (100)	88 (100)	58 (100)	32 (100)	21 (100)
	M	416 (100)	227 (100)	197 (100)	144 (100)	132 (100)	90 (100)

Source: "Determinants of Educational Participation in Rural Nepal" Survey Data, 1981.

Table 4. Regional distribution of primary education facilities, 1982

Development region	Population of primary school age-group (6-10 years)	No. of primary schools	No. of students enrolled in primary schools	Enrolment ratio
Eastern	533,059	2,569	379,585	71.2
Central	705,592	2,991	446,657	63.3
Western	449,692	2,714	390,855	86.9
Mid-western	281,069	1,623	156,421	55.6
Far-western	189,728	1,015	101,180	53.3
Total	2,159,140	10,912	1,474,698	68.3

Table 5. Institutions of primary education

	Year			
Type of institution	1982	1980	1975	1970
I. Total primary schools[1]	10,912	10,130	8,314	7,275
Number of one-teacher schools	NA	NA	NA	NA
Number of two-teachers schools	NA	NA	NA	NA
II. No. of teacher training institutions for primary education[2]	10	10	16	5
III. Curriculum Development Centre	1	1	1	–
(a) Curriculum and materials development under the Education for Rural Development Project, Seti Zone	1	–	–	–
(b) Experimental Curriculum and Materials Development by CERID under Primary Education Project	1	–	–	–
IV. Schools for physically handicapped	6	5	4	3
Schools for mentally handicapped	–	–	–	–
V. Other Institutions				
(a) S.O.S. Children's Village, Sanothimi	1	1		
(b) Bal Mandirs (75 districts)[3]	75	75	75	
(c) Paropakar, Kathmandu	1	1	1	1

[1] Schools: New primary schools start with one or two grades and add subsequent grades with the permission of the District Education Office. Thus, new schools have fewer teachers than primary schools with all five grades.

[2] Training Institutions: All pre-service teacher training activities are conducted by the designated campuses of the Institute of Education. The campuses also conduct in-service training on request from the Ministry of Education and Culture.

[3] Bal Mandir: The Bal Mandirs are centres for young children run by the Nepal Children's Organization in the the districts. The Bal Mandir in Kathmandu runs a nursery and primary grades, and provision is made for deaf, dumb and blind children. The Bal Mandirs are often used for conducting various local functions.

Table 6. Teachers and supervisors for primary education, 1982

	Teachers for primary education			No. of
Level of basic qualification	Trained	Untrained	Total	supervisors
1. Less than 10 years' schooling (under-SLC = School Leaving Certificate)	3,974	6,492	10,466	–
2. 10 years' schooling (SLC completed)	7,038	13,040	20,078	–
3. 12 years' schooling (certificate of intermediate level)	435	1,059	1,494	327
4. University degree (Bachelors or equivalent and Masters or equivalent)	78	143	221	135
Total	11,525	20,734	32,259	462

Table 7. Curriculum in primary schools, 1981

Number of working days for primary schools in academic year-220

Number of periods per week – 30 to 39.

Subject		No. of periods per week				
		Grades				
		I	II	III	IV	V
1.	Nepali	12	12	14	8	8
2.	English	–	–	–	7	7
3.	Sanskrit	–	–	–	2	2
4.	Social Studies	6	6	7	6	6
5.	Science and Health	–	–	–	4+2	4+2
6.	Mathematics	9	9	10	6	6
7.	Drawing/painting, Hygiene, Physical Education, etc.	3	3	4	–	–
8.	Physical Education	–	–	–	2	2
9.	Moral Education	–	–	–	2	2
Total		30	30	35	39	39

Table 8. Expenditure on primary education

Current Expenditure				(in Rs. '000)
A.	Current expenditure	1980/81 (Actual)	1981/82 (Budgeted)	1982/83 (Budgeted)
	1. Primary education (Teachers salarties	114,187	164,779	224,000
	2. Supervision and evaluation (primary and secondary)	224	421	347
	3. Radio Education Teacher Training (primary teachers)	171	421	700
	4. In-service teacher training (primary and secondary)	619	707	5,541
	5. Administration[1]			
B.	Capital expenditure[2]			

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[1] The expenditure on educational administration is presented in the Regular Budget of the Government, and covers all levels of education and support services. It is not possible to differentiate the amount of expenditure being devoted to any particular level or activity. The Ministry of Education and Culture, the Regional Directorates, the District Education Offices as well as other support institutions such as the Curriculum Textbook and Supervision Development Centre deal with all levels of school education. The Ministry also handles matters relating to higher education.

[2] Making provision for school buildings and maintenance is the responsibility of local communities. However, the Integrated Rural Development Projects provide assistance for building new primary schools and for repair and maintenance of existing buildings.

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

PAKISTAN

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Preface

Universalization of primary education (UPE) is one of the major priority goals of countries in the region of Asia and the Pacific. The developing countries in particular, are now vigoriously engaged in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans and programmes aimed at making adequate and suitable opportunities for primary education available as soon as possible for all children and young people.

In 1983, as part of a major project under the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) on the Universalization of Education, 12 countries in the region undertook national studies. The national studies were conducted to analyse the stage reached by the countries in UPE, and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level; to review significant new and current developments in programmes and projects which the countries have undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education; and to contribute to achieving the target of primary education for all children. The studies were conducted by national institutes and professional groups under the guidance of high level committees of the Ministries of Education in the respective countries.

On completion of the national studies, a Regional Review Meeting was held in November 1983 which undertook an in-depth analysis of the methodologies of the national studies and examined their findings. The meeting also made suggestions for improving and updating the national studies tabled for review.

Following the recommendations of the review meeting, study teams in the participating countries have revised and updated the national studies. The present publication is an outcome of the collaborative and co-operative efforts of the member countries in understanding the progress made in the universalization of primary education, the nature and extent of problems and issues and their implications for achieving UPE in the region before the end of this century.

This series which provides a comparative view of the position of and progress made in UPE has been published with the view that tha countries in the region, in their bid to step up measures for UPE, will find the information, experiences and conclusions useful in pursuing the goal of 'education for all' with a new vigour by drawing on the experiences of other countries with the same goals and objectives.

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Chapter One

CHALLENGES

Introduction

The Government of Pakistan firmly believes that the destiny of the country is being decided in its classrooms. Those who are responsible for formulating educational policies or implementing them in the field sincerely think that, in today's situation education for the vast mass is not a matter of mere rhetoric. They are clear about the significance and importance of education in the matrix of life today, as they feel that, in a world based on competition and productivity, it will be education which finally determines the quality of life of the people. For national reconstruction, the all important factor is human resource development.

This challenge is neither specific to Pakistan nor is it novel. However, its magnitude, gravity and urgency have increased immensely and it has acquired a new dimension since the adoption of the mechanism of planned development of the national economy. There is a need for a well-defined bold and imaginative educational policy and for determined and vigorous action to vitalize, improve and reform education. It must be expanded to ensure the participation of all sections of our society in raising the standard of living.

Education to a certain level is the birth-right of every individual. Islam enjoins all its adherents to seek knowledge from whatever quarter they can and considers such acquisition of knowledge to be the purest form of prayer. It does not recognise any dichotomy of the spiritual and the mundane.

Economic and social development

The problems and issues which confront Pakistan today are varied and complex. The foremost amongst them relates to economic development and growth. The great poverty of the masses in the rural areas and the incidence of unemployment or under-employment among the people, even emongst the educated continues to exist. The economy is still largely subsistence, with almost 40 per cent of the population existing below the poverty line. Economic progress over the last three decades, has not been accompanied by social progress. The worst under-development shows up in deprivation of public services absence of transport, proper health care, appropriate educational facilities and such other things.

The major problem to overcome is the state of under-development that exists, by increasing the output per capita, thus enhancing productivity. The economy is still based on agriculture which continues to use primitive means of cultivation, reaping, storage and marketing. In spite of the fact that the prominent mode of production is labour intensive, many have not been able to secure gainful employment. Provision of full employment to the people, especially to the educated, will not be possible without exercising and promoting some kind of population planning. The success of any effort on these fronts is not possible without the provision of some appropriate educational input encompassing the large mass of people.

Allied to this is the need to attain self-sufficiency in food. This will not be possible without enhancing agricultural productivity which remains low by today's standards. To be realistic, there is hardly any chance for Pakistan to become an industrial power of any substance over the coming quarter of a century. The only option left is to ensure a substantial increase in agricultural productivity. It is almost a condition of survival.

Another equally important and urgent challenge relates to social and national integration. The society is traditional, stratified and deficient in vertical mobility. The social distance between different classes is great and tends to widen. As education is not rooted in the traditions of the people, it is still often perceived as some foreign model imposed from outside. Educated people tend to be increasingly alienated from their own folk. The growth of local, linguistic and sectarian loyalties, because of ignorance, tends to obscure the country. Under the impact of industrialization as well as urbanization the old values which ensured social stability of self contained village communities are disappearing. A new set of values necessary for maintaining a sense of social responsibility has failed to emerge and replace the old. The crisis of values must be resolved, if a better and more egalitarian society is to surface and exist.

Growth of knowledge

Internationally, the country is facing another equally urgent challenge. While Pakistan is going through the transition stage of moving from a feudal to an industrial era the developed countries are passing from the industrial era to an era of scientifico-technological revolution. It is likely to be at its zenith by the turn of the present century. It is obvious that unless proper steps are taken right now, the gap between Pakistan and the industrialized countries following this emerging revolution may become too wide to be bridged.

Yet another aspect of challenges is associated with the pehnomenon termed "explosion of knowledge". Knowledge is international and a heritage of all mankind. There can be no barriers to its free import except those that are self imposed. However, no country can for ever remain at the receiving end. Pakistan must make its own endeavour to extend the frontiers of knowledge and thereby contribute to the common pool.

Priority

The population is now about 85 million. Half of it is below the age of 18. By the turn of the century it may well rise to 150 million. The total number of educational institutions in the country is around 85,000. The number of teachers of all categories is nearly 0.4 million. The total student population is about 12 million (formal as well as non-formal). However, a very steep increase is expected over the coming 20 years and the student population may touch 25 million by the year 2000.

The size and the large numbers involved in the educational system, whilst constituting a rich promise in the contribution possible by the educational input to national development, demonstrates the complexity of the tasks which lie ahead.

Chapter Two

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

New orientation

The effects of colonial rule have contributed to Pakistan's under-development. The alien rule, true to its interest, did not permit the natural development of the production process within the country. By the middle of this century when most of the colonial countries gained independence they had a number of difficult, complex, significant and urgent problems to tackle. Pakistan's fate was no different from the others. In some ways its difficulties were greater. A whole new country had sprung up. The tragedy that happened as a result of the migration of population created further hardships and complications.

It was, however, realized in the very beginning that whatever may be the magnitude and depth of problems the most effective way to their solution was to make a simultaneous attack on all fronts. It was then realized that it would have to be attempted through two main programmes: (a) the development of physical resources through the modernization of agriculture and rapid industrialization. This required the adoption of a science-based technology, capital formation and investment and the creation of the essential infra-structure of transport, credit, marketing and other institutions; and (b) the development of human resources through a properly organized programme of education.

In this context the country found itself at Independence the inheritor of an educational system installed a hundred years earlier by a foreign government and founded upon political, social economic and cultural concepts totally different from those of an independent state. The task was not to expand the existing system but to give it a new orientation in keeping with the country's cultural and economic traditions and aspirations. This task was started immediately after independence with the covening of the first Educational

Conference in November 1947 to consider the reorganization of the educational system.

The Quid-e-Azam's message to the Conference stated the task before it and the educational goal of the country in the following words:

> The importance of education and the right type of education, cannot be over-emphasized. Under foreign rule for over a century, sufficient attention has not been paid to the education of our people and if we are to make real, speedy and substantial progress we must earnestly tackle this question and bring our education policy programme on the lines suited to the genius of the people, consonant with our history and culture and having regard to the modern conditions and vast developments that have taken place all over the world.

> The Quaid-e-Azam further said:

> There is no doubt that the future of our State will and must greatly depend on the type of education we give to our children and the way in which we bring them up as future citizens of Pakistan. Education does not merely mean academic education. There is immediate and urgent need for giving scientific and technical education to our people in order to build up our future economic life and to see that our people take to science, commerce, trade and, particularly, well-planned industries. We should not forget that we have to compete with the world which is moving very fast in this direction.

> At the same time, we have to build up the character of our future generation. We should try, by sound education to instil into them the highest sense of honour, integrity, responsibility and selfless service to the nation. We have to see that they are fully qualified and equipped to play a part in the various branches of national life in a manner which will do honour to Pakistan.

This first Conference dealt with practically all aspects of education. Among its major recommendations were the following:

a) the educational system should be inspired by the Islamic ideology, emphasizing among many of its characteristics those of universal brotherhood, tolerance and justice;

b) free and compulsory education should be introduced for a period of five years, which should be gradually raised to eight years;

c) primary schools could be co-educational or otherwise according to local needs; and

d) a comprehensive scheme should be prepared for the reorganization of technical education suited to the economic needs of the country and the peculiar genius of the people.

First National Plan

The deliberations and recommendations of the Conference served to stimulate and guide the task of rebuilding education in the country. The basic policies enunciated by the Conference were accepted by the Central, Provincial and State Governments. Soon thereafter the Central and Provincial Governments set up committees of experts to review, modify and revise primary and middle school syllabuses.

The concepts, plans and schemes evolved by the above bodies and by many other official and non-official groups, served as a basis for the Six-Year National Plan of Educational Development for Pakistan, issued in 1952. This plan was prepared by the Educational Division of the Central Government in collaboration with Provincial and State Governments. The chief merit of the plan was its translation into money, buildings and people, of the educational job envisioned by the several advisory bodies and groups. Unfortunately, it was not related to an overall plan for social and economic development based upon an economic analysis of resources. Consequently, it could not serve as a concrete plan of action. It has nevertheless proved to be a useful guide to the relative needs of the several phases and levels of education.

Underlying all these hopes and plans for education is the deep-seated urge to regenerate the high moral standards of Muslim society, as derived from and rooted in Islam. The Constitution of the Islamic

Republic of Pakistan required the State to take steps to enable the Muslims of Pakistan individually and collectively to order their lives in accordance with the Holy Quran and Sunnah, and to endeavour:

> . . . as befits the Muslims of Pakistan:
>
> - to provide facilities whereby they may be enabled to understand the meaning of life according to the Holy Quran and Sunnah;
> - to make the teaching of the Holy Quran compulsory; and
> - to promote unity and the observance of Islamic moral standards.

Pakistan represents a dramatic effort reflecting the culmination of a historical process on the part of a people with a common culture to build an integrated democratic society which will measure up to their long-felt hitherto subdued aspirations. Upon education falls the paramount task of developing these moral standards of integrity, self-discipline, industry, and sense of responsibility among the population without which democracy is but a mockery and culture a mere veneer. This task, above all else, calls for the strictest attention to the content and quality of the educational process and to the intellectual and moral stature of the teachers.

On the basis of the plans for education referred to above, the First Five Year Plan 1955-60 dealt with some of the major policies and summarized the most pressing needs of education, relating these needs to the total plan of development and the total resources available, and suggesting ways of implementing educational schemes which were of the highest priority. An analysis of the available information revealed large gaps and maladjustments in the growth of the educational system. For example, one third of the primary teachers had no training; many university departments were mere skeltons; no provision existed for research in education, and failures had ominously increased, proving that the staff and equipment that existed were not being well used. This assessment suggests that most of the changes in education since independence had been quantitative rather than qualitative.

It was decided that the priorities ought to be to fill the gaps and make up the qualitative deficiencies that existed in the prevailing educational system and, having regard to the resources available, make some modest expansion. The first Five Year Plan had the following specific objectives:-

a) the enrichment of primary education and, in fact all education so that instruction is pupil-centred and rooted for Muslims in the spirit of Islam. Such enrichment should precede the efforts, economically unattainable in a short period, for making primary education universal. We believe that free compulsory primary education is indispensable to our democratic society and economy but that a five-year period of reorientation is necessary to prepare the ground-work of its accomplishment, perhaps within fifteen years thereafter;

b) the selective improvement of secondary and higher education with emphasis on the skills and leadership required to implement our plans of development. This improvement requires, chiefly, additions to the traditional liberal arts curricula of technical and scientific subjects, the provision of specialized staff and laboratory equipment, and the strengthening and extension of professional and technical courses.

The accomplishments during the First Plan period, though by no means negligible, were in several respects disappointing. No significant improvements in the quality of school education were made. Primary school enrolment did not increase to the extent expected, although secondary school enrolment was appreciably higher. The training of teachers to meet the expanding requirements was satisfactory at the secondary stage but no increase was registered at the primary level. Approximately Rs. 400 million* (including recurring expenditure) was spent during the First Plan period, against the total allocation of about Rs. 580 million.

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* Approximately 14.00 Pakistan Rupees PRs = One US dollar.

National Commission

Cognizant of the importance and role of education in bringing about some qualitative change in productivity and setting in the process of modernization and sensitive to the reality that the educational system was in the midst of a state of crisis, the Government constituted a very high powered Commission on National Education in 1958, which produced a comprehensive report the following year.

The report covered a wide range of subjects of vital importance to the future of the educational system. The central theme of the report was that education should be viewed as a productive activity and as an investment in human resources essential for the development of a progressive and prosperous welfare state. The educational system in the country, specifically at the university level, should pursue quality as an essential objective, and its end-products in arts and science should be comparable in competence and achievement with those trained in advanced educational systems of the world. Scientific and technologic education should receive particular attention and postgraduate courses should be introduced as an essential element of higher technical education. Among the recommendations made by the Commission were the following:

1. Compulsory schooling for the age group 6-11 should be provided within a period of 10 years, and within another five years for the age group 11-14;
2. Encouragement should be given to the development of secondary schools of the residential type;
3. The development of a literate population must be the immediate primary objective of adult education; and
4. In the future expansion of education, facilities provided for girls should be made adequate.

The principal recommendations of the Commission were included in the Second Plan within the limits of available resources.

New education policy

Development plans have increasingly been based on the concept that education is a vital national investment and a major determinant of economic progress. The priority accorded to education in the drafting of plans, however, has not always been reflected in their implementation. Required funds have been denied to the education and training sector because of pressure for resources in other economic sectors. This was particularly the case in the Third Plan, when a combination of adverse circumstances made it necessary at the very inception of the plan to divert investment from long gestation to quick yielding programmes. The result has been that just when the economy, having completed its preliminary stage of industrialization, was entering a more sophisticated stage and making greater demands on its trained manpower, the country found itself faced with a serious imbalance between manpower needs and education output. Large scale unemployment not withstanding, there are shortages of skilled manpower in fields that are critical for development. The educational base remains narrow, since only 18 per cent of the population can be regarded as functionally literate. The percentage of drop-outs and failures continues to be wastefully high.

To resolve these problems and to obtain better yields an exercise was conducted in 1972 which resulted in the formulation of new education policy. By that time the country had split into two parts – East Pakistan emerged as Bangladesh and the objective realities had changed drastically. The intensity of some challenges had increased while there had been quite a shrinkage in resources. The new scene wanted a new analysis and a new set of remedies. These were discussed and deliberated during the formulation of new education policy. Its main objectives *inter alia* were to:

a) create a literate population and an educated electorate by mobilizing the nation and its resources;

b) make the educational system more functional in terms of its contributions to productivity and economic growth;

c) remove the existing disparity in education services among the rural and urban population;

d) recognize the paramount importance of quality in education and the crucial role of teachers in raising standards of instruction;

e) make optimum use of the available resources including physical facilities, at all levels; and

f) strengthen and consolidate the programme of educational research and development planning.

National Education Policy

The situation drastically changed during 1977 when the process of Islamization gained fresh momentum. In view of the new emphasis the educational process was redirected. Education being a fundamental activity in inculcating proper attitudes and skills amongst citizens, the new focus necessitated the declaration of new educational aims. Consequently in 1979 a National Education Policy was enunciated which marked a considerable departure from hitherto. Realizing that the aims of education are sign posts which provide purpose and direction and that they should be consistent with the faith, ideology and aspirations of the people, the following aims were adopted to:

a) foster in the hearts and minds of the people of Pakistan in general and the students in particular a deep and abiding loyalty to Islam and Pakistan and a living consciousness of their spiritual and ideological identity thereby strengthening unity of the outlook of the people of Pakistan on the basis of justice and fair play;

b) create awareness in every student that he, as a member of the Pakistani nation is also a part of the universal Muslim Ummah and that it is expected of him to make a contribution towards the welfare of fellow Muslims inhabiting the globe on the one hand and to help spread the message of Islam throughout the world on the other;

c) produce citizens who are fully conversant with the Pakistan movement, its ideological foundations, history and culture so that they feel proud of their heritage and display firm faith in the future of the country as an Islamic State;

d) develop and inculcate in accordance with the Quran and Sunnah, the character, conduct and motivation expected of a true Muslim;

e) provide and ensure equal educational opportunities to all citizens of Pakistan and to provide minorities with adequate facilities for their cultural and religious development enabling them to effectively participate in overall national effort;

f) impart quality education and to develop fully according to their capacity, each individual's potentialities, through training and re-training and to develop the creative and innovative faculties of the people with a view to building their capability to effectively manage social, natural and productive forces, consistent with the value system of Islam;

g) provide a minimum acceptable level of functional literacy and fundamental education to all citizens of the country particularly the young, irrespective of their faith, caste and creed in order to enable them to participate productively in the total national effort;

h) creat interest and love for learning and discipline among the youth and to ensure that every student is imbued with the realization that education is a continuous and a life-long process; and

i) promote and strengthen scientific, vocational and technological education, training and research in the country and to use this knowledge for socio-economic growth and development thereby ensuring a self-reliant and secure future for the nation.

These aims were to be achieved through the following strategies:

a) highest priority will be assigned to the revision of curricula with a view to reorganizing the entire content around Islamic thought and giving education an ideological orientation so that Islamic Ideology permeates the thinking of younger generation and help them with necessary conviction and ability to re-fashion society according to Islamic tenets;

b) presently the two systems of education namely the traditional "Madrassah and Darul Uloom" and "modern school, college and university" are engaged in the dissemination of knowledge in their own way without any meaningful dialogue between the two, resulting in a lopsided development of human personality in Pakistan. However, there are desirable features in both and the possibility of their fusion into an integrated national system of education will be explored;

c) national language will be used as the medium of instruction to strengthen ideological foundation of the nation and to foster unity of thought, brotherhood and a sense of patriotism;

d) as far as possible, the facilities and programme of educational institutions will be attuned to the demographic factors, structure of the economy and needs of the labour market;

e) the interdependence of knowledge and action would be made manifest to train people for productive work and inculcate willingness to continue to learn and develop their capacities to keep pace with the rapidly changing production methods and working conditions in the highly technical modern world;

f) a total mobilization of community resources is required to be arranged including the use of mosques, civic buildings, and factories, for spreading the benefits of fundamental education and special programmes instituted to achieve universal functional literacy;

g) effective participation of local communities in the development and maintenance of educational facilities will be enlisted to ensure that educational needs of the remotest part of the country are met in the shortest possible time at a minimum cost; and

h) curricula for female education will be related to the distinctive role assigned to women in an Islamic Society, and to provide education up to the highest level to girls in separate institutions.

Current five-year plan

The Sixth Five Year Plan (1983-1988) approaches primary education with the earnestness and urgency that it has always deserved but never received. It is intended that universal primary education will be instituted within the Plan period. All boys of the relevant age group will be put into Class I in the middle years of the Plan and all the girls by the terminal year (1987-1988). A minimum of five years of schooling will be made obligatory to begin with and the tenure will gradually be raised to ten years. During the Sixth Five Year Plan, no student who is in school will be allowed to drop out before Class V.

The participation rate of children in primary schools is targetted to increase from 50 per cent in 1982-1983 to 75 per cent in 1987-1988. This implies that over 5 million additional children will be provided with primary schooling, an increase of about 75 per cent over the base year enrolment of 7 million children. Primary education indices are presented on the following page. As will be observed larger increases are planned for the more neglected sections – for rural areas and for girls.

No matter how forceful the push, an increase in primary education cannot raise literacy rates very much in a five-year plan. A marked, short-term improvement in literacy would necessarily require programmes covering the mass of the illiterate population which has already gone past the primary school age. Literate adults, especially child-bearing mothers, would not only increase the literacy rate but would facilitate the entry of girls into primary schools and the learning environment of both boys and girls in their homes. In view of these considerations, it has been decided to launch a mass literacy programme, aimed at a coverage of 15 million persons, the greatest concentration of which would be women in rural areas. The programme will have an in-built component of evaluation in order to determine whether it is attaining its desired objectives of providing literacy and motivating the entry of children into primary schools.

Legal basis

The information relating to the legal basis of universalization of education lies in documents which may be divided into (a) Five Year

Primary Education Project

A. Enrolment (in millions)

	1982-1983	*1987-1988*	*Absolute increase*	*Percentage increase*
Total	7.0	12.3	5.3	75.7
Rural	4.3	8.3	4.0	93.0
Urban	2.7	4.0	1.3	48.1
Boys	4.8	7.7	2.9	60.4
Girls	2.2	4.6	2.4	109.1

B. Participation and literacy rates (per cent)

	Participation Rate		*Literacy Rate*	
	1982-1983	*1987-1988*	*1982-1983*	*1987-1988*
Total	50	75	26.2	48
Rural	42	70	17.3	42
Urban	74	92	47.1	62
Boys	66	90	35.1	49
Girls	33	60	16.0	40
Rural Girls	21	50	7.3	40

Plans; (b) National Education Policies; and (c) Enactments and Constitutions.

Five year plans. The First Five Year Plan (1955-1960) had envisaged to pave the way for making primary education free and compulsory by the year 1975. However only 20 per cent of the total funds earmarked for education were allocated for primary education. Worse still, out of the meagre allocation of Rs. 50 million only Rs. 18.3 million i.e. 37 per cent of the amount, was spent on primary education.

In the second Five Year Plan (1960-1965), achieving the goal of compulsory primary education for children of the 6-11 years age group within 10 years time was fixed. It was planned to bring 56 per cent of the primary school age children on the roll of the schools during the plan period. For this purpose Rs. 65.4 million was allocated for primary education out of the total allocation of Rs. 395.5 million for the sector of education. However, only Rs. 17.7 million i.e. 27 per cent of the allocation was spent on primary education, the rest was transferred to secondary, higher and technical education.

The Third Five Year Plan (1965-1970) was prepared with a view to achieving the goal of universalized, free and compulsory primary education by 1980. Rs. 68.5 million was provided for primary education.

In the 1970-1978 period there was no plan as the Fourth Five Year Plan (1970-1975) was abandoned due to disturbed conditions in the country. But a total amount of Rs. 444 million was spent through ADPs during 8 years period.

In the Fifth Five Year Plan (1978-1983) an amount of Rs. 1,413 million was spent on Primary education out of the total allocation of Rs. 5,944 for the sector of Education. The target of universalized primary education still remained elusive.

In the latest i.e. Sixth Five Year Plan (1983-1988) the total allocation for primary education is Rs. 7,000 million, a substantial amount keeping in view the overall resources of the country. The number of schools, including Mosque and Mohallah Schools, will rise to 115,408 and the participation rate will rise to 75 per cent of the primary school age children. Universalized primary education is expected to be achieved for boys by 1988 and for girls by 1992.

National education policies. The First Education Conference was convened in Karachi in November 1947 by the Quaid-e-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah. The conference made a number of recommendations. Thus it gave birth to what may now be termed as the first formulation of a sort of educational policy.

The Commission on National Education (1959) in its comprehensive report, published in 1961, remarked:

> Compulsory education at the elementary stage is indispensable for skilled manpower and intelligent citizenship. For this purpose at least 8 years schooling is required. The target should be to achieve five years compulsory schooling within a period of 15 years.

In the report of the Commission on Students' Problems and Welfare published in 1966, are the following remarks about compulsory education: 'We are satisfied that Government has accepted it in principle that as soon as possible compulsory, free, primary education will be introduced in the prospective plan period.'

The well known Committee on Education Reforms in its report entitled "Proposal for a new Education Policy (1969) has recommended 'Education Policy should attach a high priority to elementary education.'

The New Education Policy 1972-1980 (March 1972) Chapter-I on Free and Universal Education contains the following decisions:

a) education will be made free and universal up to Class X for all children throughout the country. However, due to our limited resources, this will be achieved in two phases;

b) in the first phase, from 1st October, 1972 education up to Class VII will be made free for boys and girls in both Government and privately managed schools. Private Schools will be suitably supported for the loss of fees incurred by them;

c) in the second phase starting from 1 October 1974, free education will be extended to Classes IX and X in all schools;

d) depending on the response and reciprocity, it is anticipated that primary education up to Class V will become universal for boys by 1979 and for girls by 1984. In a further period of three years, it is anticipated that elementary education will become universal up to Class VIII, that is, for boys by 1982 and for girls by 1987; and

e) whether education should be made compulsory and, so, up to what stage and in what manner are questions of a serious nature: Compulsory education places a direct responsibility on parents to send their children to school on pain of punishment. Simultaneously, it entails an immediate obligation on the part of the Government to provide facilities for their schooling. On account of its far-reaching

> implications in the socio-economic structure as constituted today, this issue is left for debate and decision by the Assemblies.

A National Education Policy was again formulated in 1979 and was published under the title 'National Education Policy and Implementation Programme'. In the policy statement under the chapter on Primary Education it has been said, 'Primary School enrolment will be so increased that all boys of Class I age are enrolled by 1982-1983. Universal enrolment of boys will be attained by 1986-1987. In the case of girls universalization will be achieved by 1992'. Funds earmarked on Primary Education have been made non-transferable to other heads of education. Realizing that the introduction of compulsory primary education has certain pre-requisite steps first to be taken by the Government, the formulaters of the 1979 National Education Policy did not say anything on the subject of compulsory education.

Enactments and constitutions. No enactment on compulsory or universal primary education existed at Federal level, at the time of the establishment of Pakistan in 1947. The British Government of the day, had completely conceded provincial jurisdiction over the subject of education. Incidentally it also meant low status of education in the constitutional scheme of the British Government in the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent. Some provinces had passed enactment on primary education. In the provinces now forming Pakistan, legislation existed only in two of them, i.e. the Punjab and Sind.

Punjab Primary Education Act, 1919 and Sind Primary Education Act, 1947 provided for compulsory education in only a few comparatively more developed districts of the provinces. Later on the Sind Primary Education Act was made applicable to the entire province of West Pakistan, comprising the four provinces, now constituting Pakistan, through an ordinance of the Governor in June, 1962. After the break-up of the one unit into four provinces in 1969, the jurisdiction of the ordinance reverted to the provinces.

The posts of Compulsory Education Officers exist in some districts in the provinces. In the Punjab and Sind most of these posts are filled. In other provinces they are either vacant or abolished. The sections empowering Government to sue and punish the defaulting parents, are seldom applied. It has been the Government Policy to show leniency and resort to the policy of persuasion rather than punishment. The reason is obvious, Government has first to provide seats and facilities for all children in schools before the law can be applied in letter and spirit.

Three constitutions have been framed in the history of Pakistan in the years 1956, 1962 and 1973. Compulsory and Universal Primary Education has found a place only in the 1962 constitution in the chapter on Basic Principles of Policy in these words:

'7-*Education* Illiteracy should be eliminated and free compulsory primary education should be provided for all, as soon as possible.'

Thus provision of compulsory primary education had been made one of the basic and guiding principles of government policy without making it a justifiable or fundamental right. However, now the subject of legislation for compulsory primary education has been taken up at the highest level. It was on the agenda of the 3rd meeting of the Federal and Provincial Education Ministers and Education Secretaries held on 10 October 1983.

For the first time in the history of the country, thinking on legislation for compulsory primary education has started. Legislation may soon be expected at the Federal level, providing compulsory universalized primary education. This will really be a revolutionary and historical step.

Chapter Three

ORGANIZATION

According to the Constitution (1973) education is on the concurrent Legislative List of the Federal and Provincial Governments. The Federal Government has the power to attend to matters relating to policy, planning, curriculum, textbooks, standards and Islamic Education. It is also responsible for issues pertaining to the education of Pakistani students in foreign countries and foreign students in Pakistan. The Federal Government is the overall policy-making, co-ordinating and advisory authority. All educational institutions lying in the federal area and some special institutions lying in the provinces are administered by the Federal Government. Apart from the above the Provincial Governments are solely responsible for all other matters concerning implementation of Education Policy, organization, administration and management of the public school system. The private sector is also permitted to contribute in the process of schooling and does so to some extent up to all stages now. Finances to meet the development expenditure in education in the provinces are provided by the Federal Government. Recurring expenditure to meet salaries and regular supplies etc., are borne by the provincial exchequers.

The Federal Ministry of Education is headed by the Minister of Education. The highest civil servant responsible to the Ministry is the Education Secretary. The Ministry is divided into a number of wings. A Provincial Education Department is headed by a Provincial Education Minister. However, the civil servant in charge of the department is the Provincial Education Secretary. The bigger provinces of the Punjab and Sind are further divided into regions for purposes of administration. The head of the regional office is called the Director and he is the person who looks after the department professionally. The administrative structure is quite centralised though not to the extent that it has been in the past. Efforts have been made to create independent advisory bodies composed of outstanding educationalists, scholars, parents and elders from within the community to oversee and evaluate the implementation of the Education Policy and to watch and suggest ways to accelerate the pace of educational development. These advisory bodies, called Education Councils, have been set up at the national, provincial, district and local government levels. However, the contribution which such councils are making at the moment leaves much to be desired.

Supervision of primary education is provided by provincial education directorates through the delegation of functions to division and district levels. In fact, the primary and secondary level (grades I-X) are linked under the term 'school education' and are managed together. This results in an overemphasis upon grades VI-X to the neglect of grades I-V, since managers perceive the upper grades as having more prestige and importance. Grades I-X are under the control of a District Education Officer (DEO). The DEO has a large number of Assistant Education Officers (AEOs). The overall ratio of AEOs to teachers is about 1:250, but since AEOs spend most of their time on secondary school matters, the nominal number of teachers per AEO at the primary level is at least 500. With an average school size of two teachers, the typical AEO is expected to cover 200-300 schools, largely without transport; a reasonable ratio would be 25-40 schools, each visited five to eight times per year. As a result of these constraints, primary schools remain largely unsupervised. There are certain schools which are visited once in five years. Complaints about absenteeism on the part of teachers are therefore very common.

Structure

The formal educational system in Pakistan is of a multi-stage type. The first stage is called Primary. It comprises Classes I to V and enrolls students of age-group 5 + to 9 +. Next is a three years Middle stage constituting Classes VI to VIII corresponding to age group 10 + to 12 +. The Secondary stage includes Classes IX and X and caters to 13 + to 14 + age group. It is followed by the Intermediate stage of Classes XI and XII. The average age of students in this stage is 15 + and 16 +. Classes XI and XII are considered as part of college education. The duration of the Degree stage is two years stretching over Classes XIII and XIV corresponding to age-group 17 + and 18 +. It is the First Degree stage and a Bacca Laureate degree is awarded in Arts or Science to students who successfully complete its requirements. Duration of post-secondary education varies in technical and professional fields. Figure I depicts the structure of the education system.

Very recently, an experiment in the nature of multi-structures at the primary level has been introduced. Primary education, comprising grades I-V has been split into the foundation cycle of I-III to be followed by the elementary cycle of IV-V. The main thrust at the foundation cycle will be functional literacy and numeracy and a discipline based content will only be introduced in grades IV and V. The new curriculum is being drafted and it is hoped that the new curricula will not suffer from excessive concept density as is the case presently and that in terms of expectations from the child it will be realistic rather then over-ambitious.

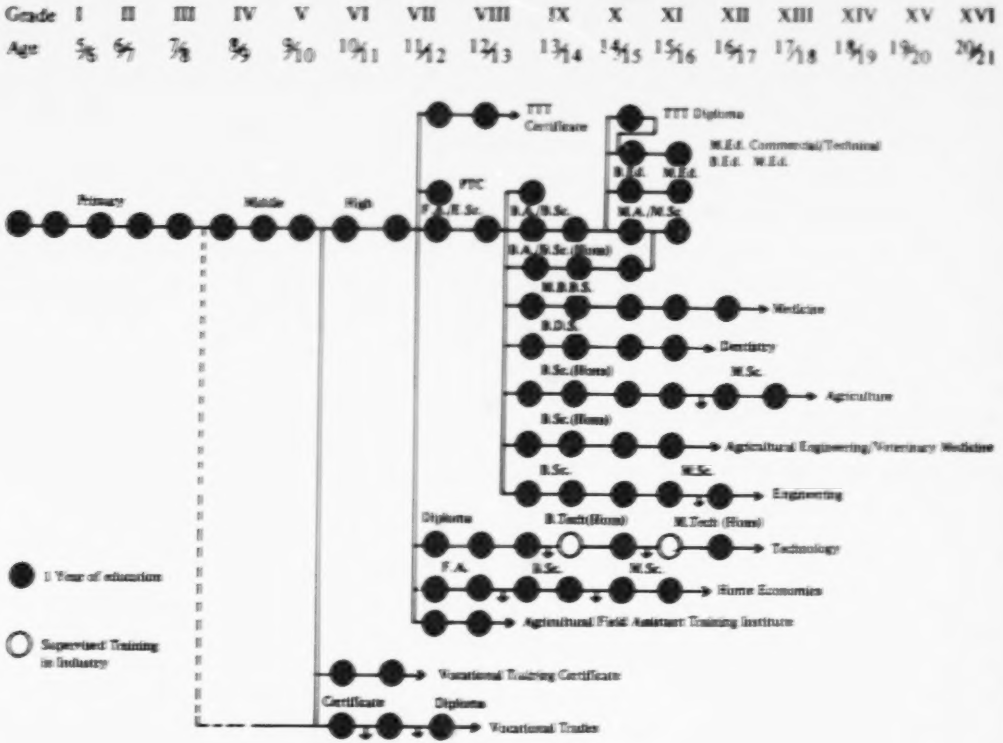
Practically all schools are single sex schools. In the rural areas, single teacher schools especially on the female side are quite common. Schools in the urban setting are invariably over-crowded. The academic year starts from 1 April. The schools work for 32-34 hours a week. The common pattern is eight periods a day of 40 minutes duration each.

Non-formal education

It is now commonly accepted that a review focused only on a country's formal schooling system provides a partial picture of its system of human resource development. However, a thorough analysis of non-formal education is seriously handicapped by a lack of data and inadequate theoretical structures for handling what data is even available. Clearly, therefore, the analysis which follows is based on informal observations.

It is difficult to make a complete inventory of all the non-formal education programmes conducted by the public and private agencies within Pakistan. Similarly it is even more difficult to make reliable estimates related to the capital or recurrent expenditures incurred. However, in the aggregate, near the same number of people are exposed to non-formal education as are to the formal system. Current estimated literacy in the country is about 26.2 per cent. While the rate of illiteracy varies in different parts of the country, it is extraordinarily high amongst rural women and in any case higher than 90 per cent.

Figure 1. Structure of the educational system (formal only)


Grade I II III IV V VI VII VIII IX X XI XII XIII XIV XV XVI
Age 5/6 6/7 7/8 8/9 9/10 10/11 11/12 12/13 13/14 14/15 15/16 16/17 17/18 18/19 19/20 20/21
Primary
Middle
High
TTT Certificate
TTT Diploma
M.Ed. Commercial/Technical
B.Ed. M.Ed.
B.Ed.
M.Ed.
PTC
F.A./F.Sc.
B.A./B.Sc.
M.A./M.Sc.
B.A./B.Sc.(Hons)
M.B.B.S.
Medicine
B.D.S.
Dentistry
B.Sc.(Hons)
M.Sc.
Agriculture
B.Sc.(Hons)
Agricultural Engineering/Veterinary Medicine
B.Sc.
M.Sc.
Engineering
Diploma
B.Tech(Hons)
M.Tech (Hons)
Technology
F.A.
B.Sc.
M.Sc.
Home Economics
Agricultural Field Assistant Training Institute
1 Year of education
Supervised Training in Industry
Vocational Training Certificate
Certificate
Diploma
Vocational Trades

To eradicate illiteracy the Government plans to undertake a massive programme through the Literacy and Mass Education Commission at the Federal level and Councils at the provincial levels. A 10-year National Literacy Programme (1983-1993) has been designed to make 40 million illiterate adults literate at an estimated cost of Rs. 2000.00 million. Successful completion of the Programme would raise the literacy level to 70 per cent. In addition to the use of traditional approaches it is planning to make extensive use of new educational technology made available in the shape of the mass media.

Administration

Demarcation of functions. The Federal Ministry of Education which has now assumed greater responsibility in the field of education, has expanded in size and stature. It is headed by the Minister and the executive authority is vested in the Secretary who ensures implementation of policies in close collaboration with the Provincial Education Departments. The Ministry has five wings entrusted with specialized jobs.

The job of administration and management of the educational institutions both at the school and college level is the sole responsibility of the provincial education departments. Each province has a Minister who is assisted by the Provincial Education Secretary. The main function of the provincial education departments includes effective control, supervision over the working of the educational institutions and translating the policies of the Federal Ministry into practice with the help of Directors of Education at the Provincial/Divisional levels as well as District/Assistant Education Officers at the District and Tehsil levels.

The Education Ministry does not work in isolation in evolving the overall Education Policy of the country and relating it to national development needs. An effective liaison is maintained with the other relevant ministries particularly with the Ministry of Finance and Planning Division so that educational plans may be suitably incorporated into the overall perspective of national planning and development as reflected in 5-year plans. Similary, collaboration is maintained with the Economic Affairs Division which negotiates technical assistance with different countries, international organizations in the field of education under bi-lateral and multi-lateral cultural co-operation programmes.

At the national level there is a planning wing of the Ministry of Education which draws up projects which are to be launched in the Federal area or are common between all the provinces. The provincial education departments have planning sections which actually spell out projects/programmes in line with the parameters delineated in the national policy and reflected in the annual development programme. All approvals to incur expenditure are sought at this level. At the District level there is an Assistant Education Officer who is specifically responsible for planning. He collects all the relevant facts and figures required in connection with the opening of new schools or their up-gradation. He is the lynch-pin of the process of planning.

Administrative organization. Problems of planning and implementation are dealt with by the Planning Wing. Issues related to pedagogy, content and pupil evaluation as well as development of text books, instructional materials and teachers guides are looked into by the Curriculum Wing. Experimentation and innovation in the sub-sector of primary is attended to by the Primary and Non-Formal Education Wing. However, generally the issues decided at the Federal level mostly pertain to policy.

At the provincial level the drawing up of the projects and obtaining financial approval is the responsibility of the section looking after planning in the Provincial Education Department. The implementation of those approved projects is then the job of Director of Schools who attends to them with the help of Divisional Director, District and Tehsil Education Officers. However, at all the tiers the representatives of the Local Government are attached through the mechanism of education committees. These committees decide locations and supervise as and when construction is taking place. The professional supervision and control of schools is with the officers of the Director of Schools.

These committees are now increasingly being involved more and more with the working of the education departments. In certain provinces they are now responsible for carrying out repairs and maintenance of the school plants. The success achieved as a result of this venture has made the higher authorities of that province think to place the funds for the construction of school building with them on the condition that matching funds in a certain proportion will be generated by them and added to the sum handed over.

Very recently they have tried on an experimental basis the concept of micro-planning at the grass-roots level in one of the districts of NWFP with funds and technical assistance from UNICEF. For the first time a whole community was involved in a planning exercise. Facts and figures were collected in respect of each home in each village, priorities were arrived at and based on the knowledge of likely available resources an actual action plan was designed, discussed and finalized. The enthusiasm generated within the communities and offers of voluntary contributions were eye-opening in many respects. It is was an ideal study of what possibly can be achieved by securing mobilization of a community.

Curriculum

At the Federal level there exists a Curriculum and Textbooks Wing. Curriculum Bureaux and Textbook Boards exist as separate institutions within the provinces. Their activities are co-ordinated by the Federal Wing. The existing curricula for Classes I to V were revised and introduced progressively from 1974. The curricula in various disciplines were drafted by National Committees containing a majority of subject experts from the Universities and are highly content oriented. There are many complaints that the concept density is far too high and that some of the concepts are at variance with the stage of development of school children.

The medium of instruction at the primary level is Urdu – the national language which incidentally is not the mother-tongue of a great majority of children. Higher education is conducted in English. The courses offered are generally the same throughout Pakistan. Diversification of courses takes place after Class VIII (age 13 +). Three streams of arts, science and vocational are available.

Textbooks are produced by the Provincial Textbook Boards. The syllabuses are common to all the provinces and to that extent the curriculum is centralized. However, the provinces are free to interpret the outline of a course in view of the conditions which may be existing in that province. These Textbook Boards develop books up to grade XII.

The primary school curriculum covers seven subjects in a 6 day, 26 – hour school week; language (8 hours); mathematics, science and Islamic studies (4 hours each); social studies, health and physical education, and art (2-3 hours each). The curriculum does not sufficiently emphasize basic language and numeracy skills, which account for less than half the total time. The time devoted to health, physical education and arts roughly equals the time allocated to language. In practice, science and art and some portions of arithmetic are neglected or eliminated because materials are in short supply and teachers are unable to teach the subject. There are many official or unofficial holidays, and the number of actual school days per year ranges between 120-130 compared to 150-180 days in other developing nations. Additionally schools are often closed during bad weather.

Examinations

Examinations are held annually and are used to promote the students to higher classes or to retain them in the same class. In the primary classes, examinations are conducted by the schools concerned. However, at the end of the fifth year of the primary stage a public examination is held by the Education Department for the award of merit scholarship. Only outstanding students compete. Similarly the examinations in middle schools are held by the concerned schools but there is a public examination at the end of grade VIII by the Education Department for the award of scholarships.

The system of examination has remained under criticism for a long time. It is subjective, it is in many ways inappropriate on any criterion of validity, and is inefficient. The examination system is felt to be creating a lot of stress for children. The existing Education Policy emphasizes complete overhauling of the system. Already, the policy proposes the abolition of annual examinations and their substitution by a system of continuous evaluation. However, the teachers, because of lack of the knowledge, still cling to the old methods. The examinations are entirely memory-based and act as a constraint in the adoption of pedagogical practices aiming at inculcating creativity in learners.

Instructional model

The instructional model followed inside the classes is traditional and archaic. There is great emphasis on the use of the textbook as the sole medium with a lot of drill as the only method of teaching. The teacher believes that teaching is learning and that he is the sole dispenser of knowledge. Inside the classroom the verbal interaction is unidirectional. The emphasis is on the acquisition of factual knowledge and the instructional objectives relate to pupil's mental operations of lower order. The teacher patterns his mode of operation after the image of a deliverer of learning rather than that of a manager of learning.

The existing educational model has been criticised as rigidly structured. It does not permit the movement of students horizontally and vertically between various programmes or levels of institution. Individuals once admitted to a programme are either compelled to stay in it or drop-out. They cannot be accepted in another programme if they have not joined, it from the very beginning, due to the inflexibility of the system. An educational model which does not provide for mobility to provide for varying aptitudes and interests can hardly be inspiring or motivating.

The teachers training programmes have remained unresponsive and ill-adapted to the changing needs of the profession. They have been designed and implemented on the model all too often of "do as I say" and not "do as I do". Thus they are excessisively theory-oriented and fail to equip a teacher with the competencies which are required to do a good job. The level of motivation of teachers has always been low. Duration of pre-service training and even the level of general education of teachers is extremely inadequate. The professional level acquired by teachers leaves much to be desired.

Teaching has not been viewed as a living and dynamic activity going on between human beings with the purpose of working for personal and social welfare and for the improvement of the environment. A visit to a school brings one face to face with a situation where one discovers how children are busy learning how not to learn. There is little wonder if one draws the conclusion that the whole exercise is partial, carried out ineffectively and inefficiently.

Community support.

Community support for primary schools is usually in the form of free donation of land for the construction of school or construction of a boundry wall where there is none. At just few places the community has provided electric fans for schools. Participation of the community is minimal, although as villages are becoming more affluent, the distance between the school and the community is decreasing.

One obvious responsibility which can be given to the local community, is that of the erection and upkeep of the school building itself. School buildings should fit in with local building habits and need not be expensive structures. They can easily be made with local materials and still be neat, clean, and kept in good repair. Colour can be introduced into the classrooms, and flowers and a garden provided. These things do not cost much money but do require local interest and co-operative effort. To accomplish this teachers, pupils and the local community should work together. The departments can help by having plans prepared, adapted to the different building materials which might be used and to climatic conditions, and made available with simple directions on how to go about the job.

In urban areas where enrolment is large and land costly, the problem is different. Here it may well be necessary to erect two or three storeyed buildings, and skilled direction and construction will be necessary. Teachers and the local community can still play a helpful role, however, by providing manual labour to work in groups under skilled direction for such things as concrete mixing or even bricklaying.

If Government provides the buildings, cost will be prohibitive and expansion will be slowed down. It is now being realised that there are certain areas which are extemely poor and because of this also apathetic. In order to ensure equality of opportunity, it will be necessary for Government to supplement the resources of such communities and perhaps also take the initiative. Communities can in the same way be given the responsibility for providing housing for the teachers. In the case of women teachers, who should be more generally used at the primary stage, this should be a strict rule.

What has been said regarding the provision of a school building, it is now felt, should apply equally to school furniture and as far as possible to teaching materials as well. For most areas the construction of simple desks, tables, and chairs should present little difficulty. Teaching materials can also be made out of material available locally. Even simple scientific experiments can be carried out with scrap materials available in every village. The departments can here again give a definite lead to the teachers and headmasters by preparing and distributing simple designs for school furniture and making suggestions on the construction of teaching materials.

However, till recently there was no political institution at the village level which could be entrusted with the above mentioned tasks. Fortunately Local Council institutions have begun to operate now and the elected representatives of people can be delegated all these responsibilities. From the little that has been attempted so far, the results are encouraging. There is enough hope now that the communities will rise to the occasion and do their share to the best of their resources and abilities. It is a positive development which has taken place over the last few years. It is hoped that the momentum generated now shall be at least upheld if not accelerated further.

Student population projections

Table 1 gives population projections for the primary age-group of 5-9 years computed for the period 1981 to 1988. These projections have been calculated using the bench-mark for the year 1981 as indicated in Census Bulletin 7 issued by Population Census Organization, Government of Pakistan, Islamabad and taking a net growth rate over the period equal to 2.7 per cent per annum with sex ratio of 108 as male to female. This figure indicating net growth rate is obtained through regression analysis taking trends affecting population into account. It is, however, felt that the growth rate is bound to decline with more and better education; more and better health services; greater awareness as to the imperative of family planning; and success in improving the quality of life for the poorer sections of the population.

The figures as indicated in Table 1 are, therefore, on the high side. Otherwise the stipulated growth rate is a fairly realistic assessment of the future population figures. The figure depicting sex-ratio

Table 1. Primary school age population of Pakistan (1981-1982)

(In thousands)

Age/ Year	*1981*			*1982*		*1983*		*1984*		*1985*		*1986*		*1987*		*1988*	
	T	*B*	*G*	*B*	*G*	*B*	*G*	*B*	*G*	*B*	*G*	*B*	*G*	*B*	*G*	*B*	*G*
5 +	2,787	1,447	1,340	1,487	1,377	1,528	1,415	1,570	1,554	1,614	1,449	1,659	1,535	1,705	1,578	1,752	1,621
6 +	2,711	1,408	1,303	1,447	1,339	1,487	1,376	1,528	1,515	1,570	1,453	1,613	1,494	1,658	1,535	1,704	1,578
7 +	2,638	1,370	1,268	1,408	1,303	1,447	1,339	1,487	1,376	1,528	1,414	1,570	1,453	1,613	1,493	1,658	1,535
8 +	2,557	1,334	1,223	1,370	1,268	1,408	1,303	1,447	1,339	1,486	1,376	1,527	1,414	1,570	1,453	1,613	1,493
9 +	2,497	1,296	1,201	1,343	1,223	1,369	1,268	1,407	1,303	1,446	1,339	1,486	1,376	1,527	1,414	1,569	1,453
5 + to 9 +	13,190	6,855	6,335	7,055	6,510	7,239	6,701	7,439	7,087	7,644	7,031	7,855	7,272	8,073	7,473	8,296	7,680
Total		13,199		13,565		13,940		14,526		14,675		15,127		15,546		15,976	
10	2,429	1,261	1,168	1,296	1,200	1,343	1,222	1,369	1,267	1,407	1,302	1,446	1,338	1,486	1,375	1,527	1,413

1. Net growth rate over the period = 2.78 per cent per annum
2. Sex Ratio = Male/Female = 108 per cent

is skewed in favour of males because, during census, rural people hesitate to provide correct information about their females. However, an attempt has been made to reflect as reliable a data as possible in the circumstances through the application of a correcting factor. For a variety of reasons such as the level of training of those who collect data and the enrolment of large numbers of average an underage children in primary schools, correct estimation of enrolment figures is frequently a problem.

Existing enrolment ratios

The parents, as they are illiterate, keep no record of the dates of birth of their children and the information which they supply to the school system is just guess work. Thus every primary grade has many overage children. The exact determination as to the real size of this group is very difficult. The basic information required in this connection is not available. As noted the tendency on the part of parents in socio-economically advanced places is to secure admission of their children rather early around age 5, while in the case of many areas in Pakistan a child is allowed to grow older by a year or more before being taken to school. Thus the exact ratio of over-age children in a grade sample is bound to vary from one place to another. However, as a fair estimate it is considered to be 15 per cent.

Another serious difficulty which ought to be considered at this stage is that the various enrolment figures available for the system are those which relate only to government institutions. Enrolment figures in the case of schools in the private sector and especially those related to unrecognized schools are neglected. However, the phenomenon of private educational institutions is almost entirely confined to cities at the moment and has only just started to spread out to affluent rural areas. Therefore, the number of children affected can reasonably be taken to be 5 per cent of the enrolment in government schools. The redeeming feature of enrolment in private schools is that it is free of overage children. In fact, it may have a very small percentage of under-age children.

In spite of these difficulties and constraints, steps have been taken to generate correct statistics through training of data collectors and careful scrutiny of available data. Taking all these factors into consideration, the enrolment ratio for 1981 has been worked out as under:

(Figures in thousands)

		Boys	*Girls*	*Total*
1.	Enrolment in Primary during 1981 in Government School.	4,400	2,051	6,451
2.	Enrolment due to overage Children @ 15 per cent.	660	308	968
3.	Enrolment of Children of age-group 5 to 9 years.	3,740	1,743	5,483
4.	Enrolment of Children of age-group 5 to 9 years in private school @ 5 per cent.	220	103	323
5.	Total enrolment.	3,960	1,846	5,806
6.	Total population 5-9 years.	6,864	6,335	13,199
7.	Enrolment ratio.	57.69%	29.14%	43.99%
	Say	58%	29%	44%

Table 2 gives the total picture of 5 + to 9 + children in government primary schools.

Table 2. Number of students at primary stage by grades I-V (1977-1978 to 1983-1984)

	Grade					
	I	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*Total*
1977-78	1,634,876	1,017,933	873,532	792,998	696,140	5,015,479
1978-79	1,733,460	1,060,203	886,377	781,927	669,393	5,131,360
1979-80	1,783,066	1,091,153	889,467	761,455	677,951	5,203,092
1980-81	1,886,192	1,153,376	943,639	798,916	691,455	5,473,578
1981-82	1,987,700	1,219,055	989,264	837,565	705,906	5,741,490
1982-83*	2,142,379	1,311,886	1,064,710	900,956	759,451	6,179,382
1983-84**	2,233,040	1,361,267	1,104,788	934,870	788,035	6,422,000

* = Partially estimated

** = Revised Estimates

Thus the overall participation rate was 44 per cent in 1981; for girls it was 29 per cent which was exactly half of the 58 per cent for boys. Comparing it with 1947 the time of independence, we find that the total was then 17 per cent, with boys and girls participation rates as 30 per cent and 5 per cent respectively.

Progress. The situation of enrolment at the primary level has been as under:

(Enrolment in thousands)

Year	*Enrolment*			*Annual Growth*		*Participation Ratio*	
	B	*G*	*T*	*B*	*G*	*B*	*G*
1969-70	2,880	1,030	3,910	–	–	57%	20%
1974-75	3,550	1,430	4,980	4.3%	6.2%	62%	25%
1979-80	4,360	1,810	6,170	4.2%	5.1%	69%	29%
1981-82	4,807	2,050	6,857	5.0%	6.3%	72%	34%

The expansion in enrolment ratio has been fairly steady and more so in the case of girls compared with boys.

Distribution. The enrolment ratio in the case of boys and girls at the primary level is as indicated above respectively 72 per cent and 34 per cent. Thus there is an enormous gap between the two. This also speaks of the distribution of school facilities which are almost in the ratio of 2 : 1 in favour of boys.

Enrolment ratios in respect of rural and urban areas cannot be given for lack of appropriate figures. However, there is no denying the fact the imbalances are there and are quite acute with rural girls as the most disadvantaged group. The regional situation is shown on page 35.

It will be seen from the table that expansion has been consistent and fairly rapid too. It is expected that this tempo will be maintained throughout the 6th Five Year Plan. However, in the coming ten years when we reach the saturation stage, the tempo of expansion will slow down considerably. Another cause of the slow down of the rate of increase in enrolment may be the reduced birth

1982-1983

Enrolment Ratio

Province	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
Punjab	82.0%	33.4%	54.2%
Sind	78.5%	28.7%	51.9%
N.W.F.P	67.5%	15.9%	34.8%
Baluchistan	50.2%	8.6%	28.4%

rate. Thereafter the progress should be easier. As the pressure of expansion diminishes, it will be possible to pay full attention to qualitative regeneration.

To problems concerning progress – the enrolment of girls and children from the disadvantaged sections – deserve special consideration. The number of primary schools for boys compared with those for girls and the overcrowding in boys' schools rather than in girls' schools clearly indicates that the enrolments of girls is much lower than boys. The number of girls enrolled for every 100 boys is about 40. Thus the real problem of progress is the enrolment of girls. Probably this cannot be overcome except by mobilizing public opinion against the traditional prejudice in relation to girls' education. Other factors which can mitigate the situation to a certain extent are the appointment of women teachers from within the communities and popularizing mixed primary schools.

Another important difficulty appears to be the social cost of education. Providing free books, writing materials and uniforms appears to be the obvious solution. In certain cases even the provision of free lunches to the children could be a necessity.

Any systematic survey can show the state of unevenness of the development of primary education which varies considerably from area to area. The magnitude of the unfinished task, therefore, is very unequally distributed between the various areas. The capacity of the different parts of the country to support a programme of universal primary education are also unequal. What is worse, it is the poorer areas that often have the heaviest load of the unifished task to bear.

Under these circumstances the equalization of educational opportunities assumes great significance.

A process of equalizing opportunity in primary education has to be attempted at different tiers. When the family is responsible for the primary education of children, inequality develops between children from the rich and those from the poor families. These can be equalized at the local government level. That should be the legitimate concern of the institutions at the grass-roots level. It should be the responsibility of the District Primary Education Authority – to equalize opportunity between different villages and towns within their areas. But the economic capacities of districts and their load of the task to be completed are very uneven. It is, therefore, the responsibility of a provincial government to strive to equalize opportunities as between districts through the mechanism of grant-in-aid. Finally, similar inequalities appear at the provincial level in the development of primary education achieved, in the magnitude of the unfinished task and in the economic capacity of the provinces to support a programme of UPE. It is the responsibility of the Government to strive to equalize opportunities at the provincial level.

Expansion of facilities at the primary stage and the universal enrolment of children and their retention in school till the end of grade V is only one aspect of UPE. The most crucial aspect is qualitative improvement so that the instruction imparted becomes good education and helps children to grow intellectually and contribute by enhancing the real effectiveness of UPE. Another equally significant dimension pertains to the introduction of work experience as an integral part of primary education. Besides this, the teaching of science and mathematics has to be revitalized and modern methods of pedagogy have to be adopted.

Non-enrolments

The causes for the problem are varied and many. Actually this fact is another manifestation of the state of under-development. Apparently the country is caught up in a syndrome of poverty, tradition, low productivity, inertia and backwardness. There are in-school factors as well as out-of-school elements responsible for it such as:

a) unattractive school plants with overcrowded classes with very few facilities for play;

b) harsh and unsympathetic pupil teacher milieu based on exaggerated expectation of pupils' performance on the part of teachers;

c) extra emphasis on rote-memorization, chanting and drill;

d) incompatibility between the classroom methodology and the stage of cognitive development of children;

e) emphasis on autocratic teaching rather than providing for democratic learning;

f) content being extra bookish rather than functional possessing little relevance to the actual life;

g) extra rigid school rules and regulation demanding utmost conformity;

h) a sizeable segment of society existing below the poverty line for whom it is really difficult to meet the social costs of the education of their children over and above their opportunity costs;

i) traditional apathy towards girl's education;

j) low status of teachers and the state of their poor emoluments;

k) teachers possessing very inadequate general education as well as very meagre professional training;

l) extreme under-nourishment of children; and

m) very little support from home and the existence of a state of apathy towards education in the home environment.

Education is a system embedded in a supra-system and a lot of interaction takes place between the two. In this dialectical relationship between the two the supra-system enjoys primacy. Thus the system is not going to adopt itself unless an appropriate restructuring of the supra-system takes effect and very substantial portion of the economy needs the educational input. Pending such a transformation the factors found helpful in decreasing non-enrolment are:

a) involvement of the local community and bridging the gap which exists between the school and the society;

b) mobilising a mass campaign ushering parents to send their children to school;

c) opening schools in mosques and at places nearer homes;

d) recruiting teachers/assistant teachers from within the community even though they be less qualified; and

e) making some arrangement for a mid-day meal within the school.

Of late, the Government has become more serious about the issue of non-enrolments and is contemplating a number of practical measures with a view to ensuring access to school of each and every child of school-going age. Some of these measures are as follows:

a) the provision of school within easy distance from the home of a child. As a matter of policy all those settlements having a total population of 500 people i.e. 80 primary school age children, must be provided with a school even if it has to be arranged in mosques;

b) the enrolment of every child of the prescribed age into Class I of a school through propaganda, persuasion and even penal action, if necessary. A law making school attendance compulsory from grades I to III is at the moment being proposed at the Federal level and is expected to be made effective in the near future;

c) the retention of enrolled children in school till they reach the prescribed age or complete the prescribed course;

d) implementing a programme of qualitative improvement with a view to enhancing the holding power of the system; and

e) to design and follow a new educational calendar more suited to communities living in villages to synchronize with their cropping pattern.

The drop-out rate is fairly high and touches 60 per cent in the case of rural areas. The causes for such an excessive drop-out rate are complex and varied such as:

a) the existence of two levels – junior and senior at grade I and the practice of admitting children in schools of an age much below five. Neither the conditions prevailing in the school are attractive nor is the child prepared for such a drastic change from the home situation. There is hardly a child who does not feel unhappy with the new arrangement. Hence at the first available opportunity he escapes it;

b) the heterogeneity of the age composition of students where the older students bully younger ones acts as a deterrent force preventing the child from attending the school;

c) the practice of making fresh admissions throughout the year. A child admitted late suffers from the fear that he lags behind others;

d) overcrowding in classes makes it impossible for the teacher to pay individual attention and attend to their specific difficulties based on individual differences;

e) curricula are extra bookish (not functional) and they contain concepts too abstract for the age of the child;

f) inability on the part of teachers to use playway techniques which can assist in initiating the children pleasantly to school life;

g) poor teaching of reading making the whole process an exercise based on repetition and drill;

h) the language of the book being different from the mother-tongue of the child makes acquisition of reading skills a very difficult process;

i) inadequate pre-service training of teachers does not prepare the teachers to cope with the tasks which lie ahead.

Very few teachers really understand what a child is and how he can be helped in the realization of his potential; and

j) the existence of a wrong system of examination in which all the responsibility is placed on the shoulders of a child.

Having enrolled every child in school, it is essential to see that they progress from year to year and that they do not leave the school till they complete the prescribed class. In the New Education Policy of 1972 it was specifically stressed that the system of annual examinations should be replaced by a process of continuous evaluation throughout the year and that promotion from one grade to the next should be automatic. However, for reasons of resistance from the teachers neither of these features could be made effective. As much as 10 per cent of children have to repeat grades and this is another factor which promotes dropping out.

To overcome the great menace of wastage the Government has suggested the following measures:

a) abolition of examinations and their substitution by a process of continuous evaluation throughout the year. There remain however, some difficulties in the introduction of the measure;

b) the introduction of a K.G. Class as a distinct entity in place of grade I junior with a separate teacher to be responsible for it;

c) the adoption of play-way techniques in Class I/K.G.;

d) recruitment of female teachers into primary schools for boys since the treatment of female teachers probably is not as harsh as is the usual practice with male teachers; and

e) an intensive pre-service training of the existing teachers with a view to reorientating them so as to improve pupil-teacher relationship.

Teacher intake capacity

There are 86 teacher training institutions to provide pre-service training to teachers. As many as 66 per cent of these are for the preparation of male teachers. Students who have passed matriculation in at least second division can apply for admission to the pre-service course. Due attention is paid to the place of origin of the candidate to ensure equitable distribution between the various communities. In fact depending upon the population, different localities have been allotted quotas of seats which are never exceeded. Till recently the number of applicants used to be much larger than the number of seats available with these institutions. However, trends now amongst the males of one province are reversed. Many seats in the male institutions of that province are not filled up and they are functioning much below their capacity.

The intake capacity of these institutions is of the order of 13,000 students. It is slightly more than the normal annual requirement at the present growth-rate. However targets related to universalization of primary education as enunciated in the 6th Five Year Plan document would accelerate the growth-rate at least by a factor of three and a crash programme will have to be introduced to make trained recruits available in desired numbers. Another strategy that is deemed appropriate is to recruit untrained teachers, let them work for some time and gain enough experience and then to send them to institutions of professional training. Alternatively one might use the modality of distance learning to equip them with the necessary professional skills and employ the Allama Iqbal Open University for this purpose.

Pre-service training. The general education of a primary school teacher is mandated to be at least matriculation (10 years schooling). Roughly about 5 per cent of the existing teaching force does not come up to this level. However, most of these teachers at the moment are educationally qualified and do possess the required professional training. In one province there are untrained but matriculate teachers and their estimated proportion is around 4 per cent. In another province there are nearly 10 per cent untrained and non-matriculated teachers. The pre-service training for primary school teachers is just one year. However, both the general education as well as the professional training may be considered as low in level. An important element of the educational crisis pertains to this inadequate teacher resource development. It is an important factor responsible for the low motivation profile of the teaching force.

A sound programme of professional education of teachers is essential for the qualitative improvement of education. Investment in teacher education can yield very rich dividends because the financial resources required are small when measured against the resulting improvements in the education of millions. In the absence of other influences, a teacher tries to teach in the way in which he himself was taught and thus tends to perpetuate the traditional method of teaching. In a situation like the present when new and dynamic methods of instruction are needed, such an attitude becomes an obstacle to progress. It can be modified only by effective professional education which will initiate the teachers to the needed revolution in teaching and lay the foundations for their professional growth. First-rate teacher-training institutions are thus essential if teachers are to play a crucial role in the regenerative development of education.

Unfortunately, the professional education of teachers remains neglected, in spite of the fact that its significance has often been highlighted in seminars, educational conferences and commissions. By and large, training institutions for primary teachers have remained isolated from the mainstream of academic life of the university, as well as from the daily problems of the schools. The quality of these institutions needs much improvement. Competent staff are not attracted, whilst vitality and reality is lacking in the curriculum and the programmes of work, which continue, to be largely traditional. Set patterns and rigid techniques are followed in practice teaching with a disregard for research and the latest techniques of teaching.

It is now very consciously felt at all levels that a comprehensive programme of improvements is urgently needed in teacher education. It is encouraging to note that to ameliorate the situation and to attract competent staff the status of primary teacher training institutions has been upgraded to that of Intermediate Colleges. All 86 institutions are being restructured under a phased programme and more than 75 per cent of the task stands completed now. Regarding the general management of these institutions efforts are being made to break their isolation. These upgraded training institutions are now required to guide neighbourhood schools and their staff in planning their lessons and in using improved methods of teaching. Their functions as an education extension wing is a new responsibility that has much meaning for the institutions as well as for the schools. What is now needed is a continued improvement in the quality of the programme and its expansion.

One other way in which training institutions could keep in active touch with schools would be through their old students. Institutions of teacher education should have effective associations with the capability of periodically bringing old students from far and near to discuss problems of common interest with the college staff. These discussions would cover achievements of individual teachers and difficulties experienced in implementing the programmes envisaged while under training. Such an interaction would benefit the institutions as well as the past students now working as teachers and would provide opportunities for a follow-up of the design of work planned in outline during the training period. Such a close link between old students and present practioners and the staff has immense potentialities for making teacher education dynamic and progressive.

Yet another method of breaking this isolation under the active consideration of the Ministry is to make student teaching a comprehensive internship in which trainees are able to observe the entire work of the school and to participate actively in all the important professional activities of a teacher, both in and out of the class-room. Such comprehensive and fruitful internship will be possible only when there is a systematic collaboration and co-operation between the schools and the training institutions and when student teaching is regarded as a joint responsibility of the colleges and the school. Collaboration between schools and training institutions could advantageously be extended beyond the internship programme. Selected teachers from laboratory schools could join the training institutions' staff, on deputation, and participate, not only in the general programmes of these institutions but also in evolving new plans of work and methods of teaching. The training institutions' staff itself could find a fruitful field of research opened up to them through their collaboration with schools. The staff would benefit considerably if they could do some continuous teaching in the laboratory school. A combination of training college staff trying out their principles of teaching, and school teachers drawing out generalizations from their practical experience, would be of great benefit to student-teachers and would assist in continuous improvements in teaching techniques.

An alternate curriculum has been designed for the pre-service training of the primary school teachers under a World Bank IDA funded project called the 3rd Education Project. A good deal of the inappropriate material from the existing curriculum has been eliminated and replaced by what is more directly related to the professional needs of student teachers. More co-ordination and integration has been brought between the different subjects of the course and the entire exercise has been rooted in Pakistani conditions. This curriculum is under implementation on an experimental basis in sample institutions. Its further modification/adoption is the subject of an evaluation programme under initiation.

Types of teachers. A close look at the different types of teacher in our primary schools reveals three groups. The vast majority of them think that children are small adults possessing clean cognitive slates and that anything can be written on these slates. They perceive that a child is capable of indulging in formal logic and comprehending any abstract concept. They make extensive use of the stick to goad the child to give correct responses to the questions being put to them.

Then there is a minority who think that to adapt instruction in the class-room to children's interests needs and backgrounds is a failure to protect our society's best interest. To such teachers learning means acquiring skills in the 3Rs. To them all children develop at the same rate and they need the same learning materials. The classwork is graded and children move from grade to grade. Each grade has basic skills to be acquired before going on to the next grade. They think that the same course must be given to all children in a class in order to establish a uniform standard. They feel that to know a lot of facts is education.

The third group of teachers thinks that they know all that is good for children. They think that they are the sole decision-makers inside a class. The children are there to gauge as to what their teachers expect of them and to sincerely try to rise up to their expectations. Any failure on the part of children is interpreted as lack of seriousness on their part. Had they been serious enough to put in the needed hard work then they would have succeeded too.

Desired changes

Two good questions under active discussion pertain to the qualification in respect of general education of those who are recruited as primary teachers and the duration of their pre-service training course. The general consensus is that ten years of schooling in general education is too limited an experience for the kind of work and the nature of responsibility a primary school teacher is expected to shoulder. A schooling of that duration might have been thought sufficient under the old dispenser-receiver or the active-passive instructional model. This model gave rise to the beliefs that teaching is not difficult and that anybody who knows can teach. However, under the changed instructional model of facilitator-learner (i.e. active – active model) it is insufficient. The minimum duration of general education which is now being generally advised is 14 years. Similarly a minimum of two years pre-service training is suggested. Those who oppose the move do so not out of professional considerations but because of financial costs.

Those who propose 14 years of schooling in general education for a primary school teacher do so for considerations of the level of mastery in subject-knowledge found in the primary curricula. An alternate way to link the study of subjects with professional preparation is to provide concurrent and integrated courses in general and professional education. Courses on this pattern have already been introduced in one university.

The third dimension in teacher education pertains to the instructional model as current within these training institutions. It is almost a truism that methods of teaching and evaluation in training institutions are extremely important and the attitudes of the student-teacher will be influenced more by the methods used with them than by what they are formally taught about the methods they should use in schools. Unfortunately, there is little realization of this and the methods of teaching and evaluation used in the training institutions continue to be largely traditional. It is this aspect of teacher training which is under deliberation. The training institutions remain institutions demonstrating stagnation and inertia. It will be a considerable challenge to revitalize them further. Education Departments propose to go about meeting such a challenge in a systematic and sustained manner.

Of all the different factors which affect the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the quality, competence and character of teachers are undoubtedly the most significant. Nothing is more important than securing a sufficient supply of high quality recruits to the teaching profession, providing them with the best possible professional preparation, and creating satisfactory conditions of work in which they can be fully effective. A programme of high priority in the proposed educational reconstruction, therefore, is to feed back a significant proportion of the talented men and women from schools and colleges into the educational system. For this purpose, it is necessary to make an intensive and continuous effort to raise the economic social and professional status of teachers in order to attract young men and women of ability to the profession and to retain them in it as dedicated, enthusiastic and contented workers. It is now realized, that this cannot be done entirely through appealing to higher motives such as love of children of teaching, interest in academic work or research, idealism, or desire for social service. There can be no doubt that the provision of adequate remuneration, opportunities for professional advancement, of favourable conditions of service and work, are the major strategies which will help to initiate and maintain this feedback. It is exactly this realization which has been kept in view at the time of revision in pay scales during 1983. Prior to revision the primary school teacher used to be placed in National Pay Scale No. 5 and used to stay there throughout his/her life. Now he enjoys Basic Scale No. 6 i.e. one step ahead, with 30 per cent of the cadre to be placed in Basic Scale No. 8. Thus some mobility has been incorporated into a situation which was previously without it.

Historically the supervisory sub-system has been structured in such a way that it allows no openings for primary school teachers. Primary and secondary education have been the prerogative of one and the same Directorate. Thus supervisors working in the primary school have been appointed from amongst the teachers of secondary schools. Very few of them ever has a first-hand experience of the problems specific to primary school teaching. Further, the practice has been the cause of denial of upward mobility to the primary school teachers. Recently this problem was attended to in the Primary Education Project where a new supervisory tier known as Learning Co-ordinator was created to strengthen the process of supervision with a view to providing optimum professional support to the working teacher. A Learning Co-ordinator by requirement was to be a primary school teacher with at least 10 years experience of primary school teaching. A Learning Co-ordinator before revision used to be placed in National Pay Scale No. 8. It is hoped that they will now get Basic Scale No. 10. As a result of the revision of pay scales as well as creation of new job opportunities like Learning Co-ordinator, the primary school teachers are definitely more satisfied as a class now than they have ever been previously. They feel that they have been given a comparatively better deal this time in comparison with people of comparable qualifications employed elsewhere.

Unfortunately, promotional prospects for teachers are poor at almost all stages and it is this aspect, rather than the scales of pay as such, that often deter talented persons from joining the profession. Steps are being contemplated to ensure that good promotional prospects are provided at all stages of education, not only for improving qualifications, but for rewarding good teaching. The idea of one model school at least in each union council has been mooted to achieve this objective.

Better working conditions. The Ministry of Education now realizes that in creative work like teaching or research, the provision of stimulating conditions of work and adequate opportunities for professional advancement are extremely important and play a very significant role in attracting and retaining the right type of persons in the profession. The conditions of work in educational institutions should enable teachers to function at their highest level of efficiency. This implies the provision of certain minimum facilities in the classrooms, essential teaching aids, a library, and the maintenance of a manageable pupil-teacher ratio. It also implies a system which encourages initiative, experimentation and creativity and gives adequate freedom to teachers in the use of methods and techniques they consider appropriate. The hours of work should be similar to those of other public servants, account being taken not only of actual classroom teaching, but also of other work connected with it, such as study and preparation, correction of exercises, evaluation and organization of other co-curricular and extra-curricular activities. Adequate facilities need to be provided for professional growth.

The Ministry of Education has also been feeling that the problem of residential accommodation, especially for female teachers, is of great importance. Difficulties often arise in the rural areas when no residential accommodation is available locally and the teacher is compelled to stay in another locality. This interferes with the efficiency of his work and prevents him from building up proper contacts with parents. The Ministry thought that these and such other problems would be eliminated if it were possible to provide reasonable residential accommodation for teachers in the locality itself. For this purpose female teachers' residences were constructed in the Primary Education Project. Their occupancy rate, however, is very low as female teachers do not feel secure while residing therein. The matter is being given fresh thought and a proposal to construct female teachers' hostels rather than residences is being seriously considered. It is felt that a hostel would provide that element of security which is, unfortunately, missing in separate residences. Another problem pertains to their transportation from the hostel to the school and back, a solution to which is now under debate.

Structural changes. Another point under consideration within the departments of education in the provinces is the increasing employment of women teachers. It is thought that, at the lower primary stage, they make good teachers and even positively effect the achievement of children. The impact of female teachers on children at primary level was a subject of research in 1984 in the Primary Education Project and the data gathered should confirm or reject the hypothesis. In many rural areas, the presence of a women teacher brings more girls to schools. It is precisely because of these considerations that an input of an Assistant Teacher – a lady less qualified as compared to a teacher but belonging to the community/ locality, was proposed in the Primary Education Project and apparently this intervention has been more successful than was anticipated.

The educational planners in Pakistan are becoming conscious of the fact that the efficiency of the teaching profession and its contribution to national development in general and educational improvement in particular, will depend largely on its social status and morale. This in its turn will depend upon two inter-related factors; economic status and their professional competence, character and sense of dedication. Throughout the world, it is presumed that the general experience has been that, as the material rewards of teachers are elevated it becomes possible to recruit into the profession individuals of a continually improving quality. With extended professional training, and in proportion to the degree to which the competence, integrity and dedication of teachers has increased, society has been increasingly willing to give greater recognition to their material and economic status. Similar development is visualized for Pakistan over the next quarter century.

For some years past the Ministry of Education has been operating a scheme of national awards for teachers. The principal object of the scheme has been to grant recognition to school teachers who have done outstanding work and help raise the status of the teaching profession. By and large the scheme has worked well. However, there is need to increase the number of awards and to ensure that they are awarded to primary school teachers in a proportion which is commensurate with their number.

Institutional changes. Another aspect considered mandatory now by the various Departments of Education concerns the continuous professional education of teachers. In all the professions there is a need to provide further training and special courses of study, on a continuing basis, after initial professional preparation. The need is most urgent in the teaching profession because of the rapid advance in all fields of knowledge and continuing evolution of pedagogical theory and practice. The programme is developed through a number of agencies. The first is the school itself which provides opportunities to the new teacher to learn from his experience and through consultation and discussion with experienced teachers in the school. The head and the senior teachers have a special role to play in providing guidance to the new teachers through planning his work and through organizing suitable activities such as staff study circles and discussion groups.

Another agency has been developed and planned in the Primary Education Project. It has one shape in one province and another in another province. It is called "Centre School" in the Punjab and the "District Resource Centre" in Sind. A Centre School is a cluster of six primary schools which are in close neighbourhood with one of the schools declared as the Centre School. This Centre School has been provided with a meeting room as well as furniture. The Centre School is the headquarter of the Learning Co-ordinator – an additional supervisory tier created to provide professional support to the teacher. All the teachers from the cluster along with the Learning Co-ordinator meet at least once a month at the Centre School to carry out in-service training. The District Resource Centre is an even more elaborate arrangement. It is the headquarters of a supervisor with enough classroom accommodation to hold in-service courses.

A third important agency in this case is the network of Education Extension Centres spread over all the four provinces. In-service courses of two to three weeks duration are designed, conducted and evaluated. So far, the main thrust has been restricted to the upgrading of content, since it was discovered that with the revision of curricula, especially, in the subjects of mathematics and science, some concepts and skills have been introduced which are not within the mastery of a big proportion of the teachers. Also of course there is a shift of focus to-day in favour of progressive pedagogy and modern areas such as psychology of learning, classroom interaction, a problem solving approach and heuristic learning. A UNDP aided project known as "Strengthening Educational Institutions" was specifically initiated for the purpose of increasing the level of professionalism to be found in the Teaching Training Institutes.

Chapter Four

STATISTICAL TABLES

Since the Pakistan educational system is a vast enterprise, the numbers involved are large. However, data is often still collected, stored and processed manually. On the one hand the process consumes considerable time and on the other unless exceptional care is taken, there is the possibility of some data getting lost or spoiled. These are all the hazards which make data collection and compilation a difficult and unreliable task. These statistics therefore are presented after drawing due attention to the varying level of reliability.

Table 1. Estimated population in primary level age-group

Corresponding to primary education level in the national system.

(In millions)

Years	*Age-group population*	*Percentage growth rate*
Actual		
1970	10.680	
1980	11.614	08.7
Projected		
1990	13.895	19.6
1995	15.040	08.2

Table 2. Trends in primary education

R = Rural F = Female
U = Urban M = Male

Year	*No. of Primary Schools*	*No. of enrolled pupils in primary education (in millions)*		*No. of teachers in primary education*	
1970	43,710	F	1.04	F	27,200
		M	2.92	M	69,100
		T	3.96	T	96,300
1975	56,237	F	1.55	F	44,100
		M	3.69	M	86,200
		T	5.24	T	130,000
1980	59,168	F	1.96	F	48,600
		M	4.71	M	101,300
		T	6.67	T	149,900
1982 (or latest year Estimated	63,066	F	2.130	F	50,500
		M	4.994	M	117,600
		T	7.124	T	168,000

Table 3. Geographical (by regions/provinces) distribution of primary education facilities

Region/ Provinces	*Total population of primary education age – group (millions)*	*No. of Primary Schools*	*No. of pupils enrolled in primary school (millions)*	*Enrolment ratio per cent*
Punjab	7.28	38,466	3.84	49.5
Sind	3.17	12,292	1.46	45.9
Frontier	1.89	7,891	0.78	41.3
Baluchistan	0.81	2,700	0.17	21.00
F.A.T.A	N.A.	1,362	0.124	N.A.
F.A.N.A	N.A.	355	0.00	N.A.
Total	13.15	63,066	6.374	57.7

Table 4. Primary enrolment ratios

	Boys	*Girls*
	(Per cent)	
Combined	63	32
Rural	58	20
Urban	77	68

Table 5. Curriculum in primary schools

Number of working days for primary schools in a year – 190-120.

Subject/ Activity	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*
1st Language	12	12	6	6	6
2nd Language	–	–	6	6	6
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6
Science	5	5	6	5	5
Social Studies	5	5	6	5	5
Health and Physical Education	5	5	4	4	4
Islamiat	6	6	6	6	6
Arts	5	5	4	3	3

(Each period is of 40 minutes)

Table 6. Number of primary schools, and teachers, (1978-1979 and 1983-1984)

Year	*Enrolment*	*Primary schools*	*Teachers*
1977-1978	6,015,479	53,964	134,370
1978-1979	5,151,360	53,882	136,876
1979-1980	5,213,092	57,220	140,949
1980-1981	5,473,578	59,168	150,004
1981-1982	5,741,490	61,117	159,062
1982-1983*	6,179,400	71,358	176,700
1983-1984**	6,412,000	72,053	206,000

* = Partially estimated
** = Revised estimates

Public expenditure. Public Expenditure on Primary Education (in national currency year 1982-1983)

		Rs (millions)
a.	Current expenditure (Non-development)	1,810.28
b.	Capital Expenditure (Development)	531.03
	Grand Total of A & B	2,341.31

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Chapter Five

SYSTEM OF SUPERVISION

Existing pattern

Attached to the Director of Schools are the Divisional Directors who are mainly responsible for providing leadership and guidance. Their main functions are control and direction of what is happening inside schools. Next in hierarchy to the Division Director is the District and Tehsil Education Officers who along with their Assistants are responsible for supervision. Each Assistant of a Tehsil Education Officer is required to look after 80-200 schools. The concept of inspection is increasingly being replaced by that of supervision. However, all these officers have so many other matters to attend to that they are hardly able to devote any of their time to their professional function. As much as 95 per cent of their time is spent in administration or in giving interviews. Furthermore, the number of schools for supervision is so large that with no provision of conveyance, it becomes almost impossible to visit them regularly. There are schools which have hardly been visited once in five years. This incapacity on the part of supervisors to reach a school is the cause for much absenteeism of teachers in schools. This state of affairs gives rise to the phenomenon of dysfunctional schools.

Supervision is, in a sense, the backbone of educational improvement. Unfortunately, the programme of supervision of schools has largely broken down in most places for several reasons such as:

a) the large expansion in the number of institutions which has not been accompained by a corresponding increase in the number of inspecting officers;

b) the combination of administrative and supervisory functions in the same officer which affects supervision adversely. Administrative work, which has increased greatly in recent years is always given priority;

c) the use of supervisory officers, when they are members of some development team, for non-education work, leaving them very little time for their own responsibilities; and

d) lack of adequate competence in the inspecting staff.

One of the major programmes in the reform of school education is to overcome these difficulties and to create a new system of supervision.

Rethinking. At the moment, a lot of rethinking is taking place at all levels. The concensus which is emerging is that primary education needs to be visualized as a local-provincial partnership. The overall responsibility should rest squarely on the provincial departments of education. The local authorities should have a good deal of initiative and even the provincial governments ought to encourage them by adopting flexible policies. It is now realized that the provincial education departments which are the principal agencies to deal with education matters, therefore, should:

a) develop an intensive programme for school improvement which would include periodical revision and upgrading of textbooks, teachers' guides and other teaching/learning materials, and improvement in the methods of teaching and evaluation;

b) prescribe the standards to be maintained in consultation with the professional bodies and enforce them through the inspector;

c) be responsibe for supply of teachers, for fixing their remuneration, retirement benefits and conditions of work and service and for organizing teacher preparation – both in-service and pre-service – on proper lines and for establishing, conducting or aiding training institutions of high quality with adequate intake and outputs;

d) be solely responsible for inspecting and supervising schools which may be carried out through its officers specifically trained for the purpose; and

e) encourage, guide and assist the local authorities created for the administration of school education and help them maintain quality institutions to serve as models and to provide a regular programme of extension services to schools in order to secure a continual improvement of quality.

The Education Department of N.W.F.P has been of the view that if these functions are to be properly implemented, some major changes are needed in the administrative set up of the provinces. Ever since independence the education departments in the provinces have expanded considerably in response to social demand. Unfortunately, there has not been any delegation of authority to the lower levels, and the district officers, in particular continue to be weak. In fact, no feature of the provincial educational administration is so conspicuous as the wide gap between the heavy responsibilities which are placed upon the district level officer of the department on the one hand and the inadequacy of his staff (both in number and quality) and of his authority on the other. With a view to overcoming this gap and modernizing the working of the Department of N.W.F.P entered a process of reorganization of the entire department. The enhancement of efficiency and effectiveness as demonstrated there has persuaded other provinces to follow suit. In fact the initial thinking for the desirability of establishing a District Education Authority has already started with the following objectives in view:

a) the District Education Officer should be given a status commensurate with the responsibilities of his office;

b) there should be adequate delegation of authority to the district level so that it can function as a Directorate in-so-far as primary schools are concerned with teachers attached to the district cadre; and

c) eliminating the three basic weaknesses of the inspectorial staff at the district level; inadequacy of numbers; poor quality of personnel and lack of specialization.

Taking the matter to its logical conclusion it is now felt that the chain in respect of delegation of authority should end with the district officer. There is a need that it should go further down to the level of head teacher who should be given wider powers and greater freedom. The government schools suffer from the lack of it. For instance, the head-teachers are not consulted with regard to the transfer of staff from or to their school, they are not involved in the selection of their assistants, they lack authority to control assistants, and they have no authority to fill short-term vacancies. If schools are to improve, this situation has to be changed. It is now felt that the general principle should be to select the head-teacher carefully to train him properly, to trust him fully, to invest him with necessary authority and then to make him responsible for effecting improvement in his school.

Proposed measures.

The idea of a school complex in which a good modern primary school or middle school will be integrated with a limited number of primary schools in its vicinity is gaining recognition. This seems to be very realistic as it would break the isolation of the schools and help them to function in small, co-operative groups, and to make the delegation of authority from the Department really meaningful. A school complex can be very effectively used for the following functions:

a) as a unit for the introduction of innovations, experimentation and better methods of pedagogy;

b) as a unit where equipment can be shared within the complex. Such a step would help provide modern educational technology in a cost-effective manner;

c) as a unit to arrange in-service education of teachers, and the upgrading of the less qualified teachers in particular;

d) as a unit to which one or two supply teachers could be attached to act as relief teachers as and when a certain teacher proceeds on leave; and

e) to serve as a unit where trying out of new curricula and similar innovations can be effected.

Thought is also being given to the separation of administration from supervision with a view to rendering supervision more effective. Supervision concerns the development of personnel with a view to equiping them with capabilities making it possible for them to cope with the goals of the administration. It is supervisors who more than anybody else are responsible for facilitating the needed change from outdated patterns of work to modern techniques.

There has never been a separate training programme for the supervisiors. The supervisors are mostly senior secondary teachers who have very little experience of teaching at the primary level. They are never specifically trained for the job. They are forced to learn from on-the-job training with the passage of time. Some courses of supervisors have been conducted by the Management Unit for Study and Training, Peshawar, but they are related more to the management aspect of their jobs rather than to enhance their professional competencies.

Chapter Six

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Pakistan's population is predominately rural, poor and illiterate. Some 55 million people live in approximately 50,000 villages, where the median farm size is less than 10 acres and the income per household is about Rs. 100 or less per month. Of the nation's more than 70 million people, about 50 million are illiterate. This remains a major barrier to the country's scientific, social, political and economic progress. It also provides an index to the culturally barren existence of millions of individual citizens.

Most observers agree that primary education has been the most neglected sub-sector of education. Moreover, it is conceded that the existing educational system already provides adequate opportunities only for the upper income groups. The neglected areas of education are in the rural parts, with the economically disadvantaged, and the female portions of the population. Only 17 per cent of the female population is literate. In the following are the realizations that one has to take particular note of:

a) as the Government is striving hard to translate the concept of Islamic justice into reality, the welfare needs of the people are not only increasing but rapidly multiplying. Even a government with infinite resources cannot alone meet this situation for long;

b) so long as people remain passive recipients of welfare benefits and do not exercise their social responsibilities, the government resources tend to be overspent and underutilized;

c) an attempt to bring about improvement of education by arbitrarily underpinning a few factors without regard to community involvement may be an incorrect and wasteful strategy. The total dynamics of the school and the community and their interaction need to be carefully studied to decide how and where the scarce resources can best be invested;

d) attempts at educational development in isolation, without regard to the development needs of other aspects of village life, are generally ineffective;

e) the development of sectors like agriculture, health and communication in a rural setting pre-supposes the attainment of certain level of knowledge and skills on the part of the people for which corresponding educational development is necessary;

f) education can become meaningful only when its contents are drawn directly from the learner's environment and when he can see a relationship of what he learns in school to what brings about development in the community. In fact, the involvement of students in various development activities can provide the factual learning experiences which the school can never create within its limited resources;

g) the students who witness and participate in development activities are attitudinally better poised towards the improvement of their communities compared with those who may have heard of development but have seldom seen it taking place;

h) the reforms initiated from local roots are likely to have far more promise than ones transplanted from outside;

i) a variety of resources are available within each community which can be profitably mobilized for education and other purposes;

j) people need to be organized at the local community level to be able to identify their needs and to commit themselves to solve their own problems;

k) the colonial notion of development planning, initiated and monitored by the rulers, needs to be replaced by one initiated and monitored by the people themselves;

l) plans are best when formulated in participation with professional staff with lay citizens and community members of different classes and sexes; and

m) a meaningful in-service education becomes available to teachers, administrators, planners and managers when they have first hand appreciation of the problems, needs, and resources of the community, to undergo experiences of determining alternative solutions, and formulate plans in collaboration with community members.

Community participation is a very new concept for Pakistan. Until very recently there was no institution at the grass-roots level which could promote community participation. However, now the community participation has been assured through representatives of local councils for such matters as selection of location for a new primary school and in carrying out minor repairs of the school building. In fact education committees are being formed at the level of wards/ union councils. Mobilization of community resources for education in progressive villages is a new trend now more visible than it has ever been in the past.

Chapter Seven

NATIONAL POLICY AND PROPOSALS

Approach

The critical role of primary education in the development process has always been recognized in the policies of the Government. This recognition reflects itself in the eight-fold post-independence increase in the number of schools and nine-fold increase in the enrolment of the 5-9 age-group population.

Nevertheless, judged by the last milestone, the gains remain modest. The participation rate today is only 48 per cent (Boys 63 per cent: rural – 58 per cent, urban – 77 per cent: and girls 32 per cent rural – 20 per cent urban – 66 per cent), indeed a low figure. Of those who enrol for Class I, about 50 per cent drop out by the time they reach Class V. The physical infrastructure is utterly indequate leading to the twin phenomena of ghost schools and teacher absenteeism. Our inability to expand primary education so as to absorb the increase in population and reduce the backlog of illiteracy, has increased the enormity of the challenge. It is encouraging that the Sixth Plan approaches the primary sector with such earnestness.

A lateral quantitative expansion of a significant scale should bring the school facilities to the door steps of the people. However there is a distinction between elementary education and primary education. Elementary education is defined as the ability to read and write and do simple arithmetic, an ability which can be acquired by three years schooling. This should constitute a distinct stage in the system. The main thrust of quantitative expansion should really be at the elementary level (i.e. grades I-III) during the Sixth Plan period. The reasons are readily obvious. Costs of universalization would be lower. The initial accommodation facilities exist. There is only one whole-time teacher, the Imam works on a part-time basis. Separate schools for the girls are not needed in this age group. The problem can thus be reduced to more manageable proportions.

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There should be a terminal test, locally arranged so that a certificate can be awarded.

The quantitative expansion at the elementary level has another advantage. The opportunity cost (the economic loss of the parents in keeping their children at school) would be reduced. The time horizon is only three years against five in the primary. It would be easier to enforce the legislation for compulsory education up to this level.

The total number of mosque schools at the end of the plan period would be about 43,000 which implies that every village would have a school. This would be in addition to the 65,000 other primary schools that already exist (June, 1983). Once this level has been achieved, quality must begin to assert its claim for allocative priority.

The above framework is justified by another conceptual distinction, the distinction between the problem of low enrolment and the problem of high drop-out. Continued retention at school depends a great deal on the quality of schooling and the environment of the school. By emphasizing these, we enlarge the benefits of investment in education. The transition from the elementary to primary level would thus mark a shift in strategy, from the cost side of the question to the benefit side.

Quality improvement. The quality as a dominant factor would find a tangible expression in the proposed establishment of 4,000 primary model schools – one for each Union Council. This however, would be a cost-concious model. Each school would have five classrooms, five teachers, a headmaster's room, modest furniture comprising a teachers' chair and table, blackboard and taats (mats) a teaching kit, a library, and provision for physical education and sports.

The "model school" concept is not new, but its implementation on such a wide scale, covering the whole country as it does is a radical innovation. It is one of the key projects identified in the Ministry of Education "Action Plan" related to the Sixth Five Year Plan 1983. Not only can such schools act as centre or cluster schools. They can act also as experimental centres where new curricula, learning materials, teaching techniques, in-service training methods, supervisory and observational techniques can be introduced and evaluated. Above all it will enable Pakistan more realistically to establish criteria of achievement which may resonably be expected of its primary school children.

Other constituents of improvement include (a) revision of curriculum and textbooks; and (b) teacher training. The mosque school being a part of the general scheme of education will use the same curricular materials as other schools. Its quality must measure up to the general standards maintained in the sector. Further, the functional segmentation of Classes I-V, into Classes I-III (elementary) and class I-V (primary), would necessitate readjustments. It is propposed to provide educational kits to all the newly opened schools and train teachers in the use of these kits. The new product, however, will be separated into two kits, one for the elementary (Classes I-III) skills of reading writing and arthmetic, and improved courses for Classes IV-V, containing elements of science, will be developed.

The demands of primary education entail a crash training programme of teachers. About 100,000 teachers will have to be admitted to the training process. This will mean commissioning all existing training institutions, including the Allama Iqbal Open University. Even that may not suffice. It will be necessary to use innovative methods, for example, preparing mobile squads for *in situ* training in difficult areas. Funds in the Action Plan have been provided for this purpose.

Substantial success has been achieved in the primary education project by introducing on an experimental basis, resource centres (a model primary school) for a cluster of schools in the vicinity. Further implementation of this concept will go a long way in conslidating the process of primary education. The model primary school being established under the Action Plan would be used as the resource school, to upgrade the skills of teachers serving in the satellite schools.

Supervision. This has already been identified as a weak link in the management of the educational process at primary level. The committee on primary education made specific recommendations to improve the supervisory structure. The implementation of all these recommendations seems beyond the resource of the Sixth Plan. Yet, the present ratio of supervisor to schools' which may be as great as

1:300, is beyond the management capability of a single person. In order to ease the situation a first phase programme, the appointment of a Supervisor (as a front line worker) in grade II at each Union Council should be made. Such a person will be a member of the Union level education committee, will motivate the community, will supervise education in primary schools including mosque schools within his area, and will co-ordinate the activities of the formal education sector with the literacy centres in his area. Such a person will be selected from amongst the primary school teachers in the area. The Supervisor will be required to report the progress of the schools to the AEO concerned. To make the supervisor mobile, he should be provided with a bicycle, on a hire-purchase basis. The programme is anticipated to cost Rs. 270 million, for which provision has been made in the Action Plan. The expenditure on salaries and the lump sum provision for hire-purchase is included in the development expenditure.

Research and experimental project

Four research areas need consideration in primary education. First the mosque school, as it establishes itself may present some problems of human ecology, and possibly of the quality of education. Secondly, the high drop-out rate which has been with us for a long time, requires a more systematic investigation. Thirdly, the development of curricula, and the preparation of textbooks, both of which have to be better adjusted to the cognitive levels in the primary age-group. Lastly, alternate methods for promoting education amongst the rural females through a mix of formal and non-formal structures, as for example those used in the experimental pilot programme of educational development in rural areas. Such methods warrant further studies and appropriate readjustments. Whereas research will be encouraged in the areas identified, it is proposed to launch the IREAD (Integrated Rural Education and Development) programme on the basis of the experimental programme completed by the Ministry of Education in 31 villages (preferably all villages of a single tehsil selected in a province). The programme integrates community development (skill training for men and women) with primary education and adult literacy and is handled by the local village committees.

Physical infrastructure

The working environment of the school is also to receive a modest upgrading. Furniture will be provided to all the existing schools (where not provided already) and to the extensions of the school when made. The proposal is for sufficient allocation in the Action Plan to meet the minimum requirements of standard furniture items recorded in the table below:

List of standardized minimum items of furniture for each primary school

Items	*Quantity*	*Total Cost (RS)*
Taats	6 sq.ft. per student	6,000
Blackboards	4	300
Iron trunks	3	200
Steel almirah	1	800
Teacher chairs	6	300
Teacher tables	5	400
	Total:	[illegible],000

Despite the allocation of resources described above, the major portion of allocations, (in fact more than 80 per cent) is earmarked for the expansion of physical infra-structure. Two-room buildings for Classes IV and V will be provided for 32,000 schools (50 per cent for girls) to accommodate the students passing out of the mosque schools. One-room extensions will be provided to 35,000 mosque schools. New buildings will be constructed for 7,[illegible]00 schools, while restoration and improvement will be undertaken for 6,300 existing buildings. The only element subject to doubt is the provision of female teachers residences, because they seem to be unable to attract non-local teachers.

In the face of so generous a disposition to the physical infrastructure, one might as well ask if this is not plan of brick and mortar, despite the lofty claims about the quality of education factor. Not necessarily. The reasons are two-fold. There is an enormous backlog of "opened" but "unbuilt" schools, which have tended to deteriorate into paper institutions. Secondly, there is the question of absorption capacity on the soft-ware side. If this capacity does build up, there should be no hesitation whatever, to reappropriate resources earmarked for buildings. It is in this spirit of flexibility that one needs to approach the problem. As a result of these measures the primary participation rate is expected to go up to 75 per cent and literacy rate to 50 per cent by 1988. If these targets are achieved, the Plan would have fulfilled a mission.

Conclusion. In summary, primary education will be given a new start through better working environments, higher quality of teaching, and more effective supervision. In many of these areas one has to remain vigilant, because cost effective measures of quantification are not available. Above all it will require an abiding commitment from all those who occupy the centre of the stage.

Proposed measures

The Government is conscious of the fact that the most important programme to be implemented during the coming 20 years in the education sector is to both improve the quality of primary education and to attain its universalization. A difficult challenge, therefore, confronts the Government. The challenge relates to the need to restructure the present outmoded system. What follows is a discussion upon the various steps and measures which are being taken to effect this restructuring.

The provincial departments of education are the principal agency to prepare and implement educational plans. Unfortunately, no adequate attention has been paid so far as to their development on proper lines. Their structure, designed during the British period for very limited purposes, continues to be substantially unchanged even to this date. Their procedures and programmes are still largely traditional and the outlook of their officers is more often than not, rigid and conservative. It is true that there has been some expansion in the number of personnel working within the departments. But most of this expansion has been on traditional lines and has not implied any qualitative change in their operation. Moreover, even this numerical expansion has not kept pace with the demands of the situation and has fallen short of the expansion in the number of schools, their enrolments, the strength of the teaching force employed, or total educational expenditure at present. No provincial department of education, as constituted at present, is in a position to assume responsibility for the complex and difficult programme of educational reconstruction.

The Government is of the view that administration is essentially a matter of faith and vision, bold and courageous leadership, and proper handling of human relations. The major weakness of the existing organization of the provincial education departments are largely related to personnel. These include: inadequate staffing, inadequate provision of in-service education, lack of specialized staff, and shortage of personnel at the higher level. The existing facilities and arrangements for the training of educational administrators are inadequate. Pre-service education for educational administrators is considered unnecessary. There is little or no provision for such training opportunities in the country. It is all the more surprising because the efficacy of training is the basic assumption in education. Training for an educational administrator is needed not only because the tasks he is required to perform are difficult and complex, but mainly because it is necessary to orient him to the programme of educational expansion and improvement.

Practically all educational administrators working in the provincial education departments are old working teachers who, in order to receive promotion, have been posted to such new assignments. They neither know much nor are properly inducted into their new jobs and all that they are left to do is to pick up one thing from here and another from there. To add to it they are sometimes required to manage or support educational programmes of an innovative nature. Such programmes are often doomed to failure which can, therefore, be traced back to the management level. Thus there is no doubt that to ensure the success of a programme of an innovative nature the management has to be of an innovative type.

The existing procedures in educational administration suffer from an excess of emphasis on uniformity and rigidity. These rules and regulations rather than proving to be guidelines for action have become straitjackets and the explanation of inaction. The idea of creating uniformity and regulating the educational process through comprehensive departmental codes has been overdone. A good portion of these codes are no longer compatible with the changed reality. Whereas there was ample justification in 1935 for requiring to float a tender in the newspapers if the articles to be purchased are to cost more than Rs. 5000/– the same has lost all relevance when the tender itself will cost 50 per cent of that amount. The worst part of the situation is that it militates against initiative and reduces experimentation to a minimum.

The Government thinks that in order to introduce flexibility and dynamism to the educational administration the first thing is to bring a change in the attitude of the administrators. They need to cultivate an openess of mind and a spirit of inquiry rather than a rule-of-thumb approach trying to stick to established practices even when they cease to be meaningful. It is here that research in educational administration and the in-service training of educational administrators can play a significant role. There is need to innovate those management and organization practices which have been found so effective in industry. It was in this context that the Management Unit for Study and Training (MUST) was created in N.W.F.P during late 1979 as a pilot project with the specific objectives to:

a) look into the management practices and procedures as they exist at the moment and to recommend appropriate changes with a view to ensuring their compatability with the changed reality;

b) take a critical appreciation of the present educational code for the purpose of its recodification to establish consistency with the changed circumstances;

c) prepare job specifications and job manuals for administrators at all levels with a view to enhancing their efficiency and modernizing the management along the new organization and management concepts;

d) arrange in-service training of the administrators with the purpose of equipping them with the planning and management techniques which they lack; and

e) look into the possibility of creating an appropriate and valid data-base through the establishment of a Management Information System employing electronic data processing.

MUST is a pilot project created on an experimental basis in one province, and its evaluation is now in progress. It is expected that similar units will be created in other provinces modified to the extent indicated in the evaluation report. However, the common belief is that MUST has been a considerable success.

School mapping. Areas in which there is scope for much improvement in administrative practices are those of policy formulation and project preparation. Modern administrative practices in the production sector require a systematic analysis and determination of cost-effectiveness before a new operation is launched. In education, too often the practice is to describe a scheme in a perfunctory manner without determining its full cost and to begin operation with insufficient preparation. The knowledge that the cost is prohibitive and cannot be met out of the allocated resources, is gained only when the shortfall of targets is brought out during implementation. Where large sums of money are to be spent a series of preparatory steps are necessary beginning from feasibility studies and going through step-by-step plan of operations for the project. This detailed programming of the planned activities will ensure more economic use of resources and a better evaluation of the progress being made during implementation.

The major reason for doing an inadequate job at the time of project preparation and during implementation is the fact that a comprehensive picture of the educational system, being such a vast enterprise, is difficult to visualise. Here is a situation where the tree may be known but the map of the wood is missing. It is so easy to take a decision that all those settlements having a population of 500 or more must be provided with schools. But one cannot say with any confidence how many of such settlement there are in all and how many are without a school, or what such a decision would cost the exchequer. No system of feasible priorities can be worked out without having such reliable basic information available.

A 'School Mapping' exercise has been completed. It is the first step in a scientific approach to systematically solving the problems associated with the provision of educational facilities at the primary level to all children in the country and towards some rational distribution of institutions related to the second level of education. The exercise is an attempt to effect optimum utilization of the very scarce resources which Pakistan possesses. The main objectives of the activity are to:

a) collect relevant data from all the educational institutions of Pakistan comprising all the various administrative units up to the level of secondary education;

b) process the same data employing electronic data processing;

c) diagnose the existing situation with a view to determining the disparity in the spread of educational facilities;

d) ensure rational distribution of educational facilities to be developed under the Sixth Five Year Plan; and

e) identify major criteria for assessing the optimal use of a network of educational facilities.

A computer based questionnaire, formated coding sheets and a 'Learning Package' of three units were developed at the Project Wing of the Ministry of Education and a series of workshops to train data collectors were run. Data collectors were required to visit each and every institution and to enter the data directly in the coding sheets. A system of spot checking was designed to ensure the reliability and accuracy of the data so collected. The data from the coding sheets has now been tabulated by the computer and its analysis is under progress.

Strengthening selected educational institutions. Until very recently development in education has meant quantitative inputs, targets and outputs. The exact educational substance, content and effects have remained, by- and-large, overlooked. Certainly the distinction between quantity and quality in educational development is a problematic one – many qualitative aspects of an educational system finding their expression in quantitative indicators and it is true that educational planning has been in the past primarily pre-occupied with problems that are amenable to quantitiative adjustment. What happens to students exposed to instructional and other educational experiences provided as a result of plans for the further expansion and development of the educational system has been of less concern. In the process, what the particular instructional and content characteristics of a given type of schooling did to the mix of knowledge, skills and attitudes to be found in the student has tended to be a matter of small concern.

A good deal of attention has been directed in recent years therefore to the techniques of revitalizing classroom teaching. The revised curriculum was intended to revolutionize all life and activity in the primary schools and draw out the best in the child. A critical survey of the situation as it existed was conducted in one of the provinces in 1977 and it was revealed that, in spite of the considerable effort in the shape of workshops, refresher courses and seminars, the impact of these activities on teaching practices had been relatively small. There remained a mismatch between the curriculum and the methodology. The new curriculum was still being taught through an old methodology. The survey clearly demonstrated that languages continued to be taught through chanting, that comprehension was poor, that language development amongst children remained low as a consequence. Mathematics, science and social studies continued to be taught through drill and memorization. Teacher-pupil interaction remained uni-directional and pupil initiation was conspicuous by its absence. Instruction still conformed to a mechanical routine, continued to be dominated by the old besetting evil of verbalism remaining dull and uninspiring.

The problem as indicated above is complex and the answers to it are not easy to find. However, the following factors are considered to be mainly responsible:

a) by and large, the competence of an average teacher is poor: his general education is below standard and his professional preparation unsatisfactory;

b) little has been done to find out in crucial sectors the methods that are best suited to the conditions and needs. For instance, the best method of teaching beginning reading in a non-phonetic script like Urdu has yet to be developed;

c) The educational system is not designed to encourage initiative, creativity and experimentation on a large scale and is, therefore, unable to keep itself abreast of the time. Intuitively it is felt that we are behind the international mainstream and that this gap may widen with the passage of time; and

d) even assuming that a good method of teaching is discovered and is actually introduced in progressive schools, the

> problem still remains of disseminating it amongst the other schools so that it becomes the common practice in the educational system as such. This is a difficult task and one has yet to find the right techniques for accomplishing it.

Cognizant of all the above issues, it has been felt that teachers at the primary level have no option but to continue teaching in the way they are doing at present. This is the only model that they have witnessed and they are almost bound to perpetuate it. The only solution is to present better models for the teachers to observe and from which to draw their inferences. In such a situation educational films and model lessons developed around specific concepts at particular grade levels are necessary. Unfortunately, films obtainable from the market are usually in English. The language itself will not be the main problem since any film can be conveniently dubbed into Urdu. The biggest objection to the showing of such films with a view to creating the desired impact on our teachers is the difference in the conditions of schools as depicted in the model and what exists in Pakistan. This enormous difference between the two situations acts as a mental block with the teachers, prohibiting competely their drawing out the necessary inferences.

In the circumstances it was thought that if something similar could be done in typical situations the message could be a real force and a good way to let the teacher see what the possible alternatives are. To achieve this objective of reforming pedagogy a UNDP aided project named as "Strengthening Educational Institutions" was launched in all the four provinces during 1979. The project conducted a series of teacher refresher courses based on actual classroom teaching. Lessons in local conditions were recorded on video-tapes and were made a basis for group discussions. The project is near completion and its evaluation is in progress.

Experiment in local planning. The crux of the problem of educational planning in Pakistan is to implement a national policy in education in spite of the fact that Pakistan is such a large country and that conditions vary enormously from one place to another. To execute uniform policies in conditions which are extremely divergent is a very difficult task. This difficulty is further compounded by the fact that planning is done centrally and often as an arm-chair exercise. The existing machinery for educational planning leaves much to be desired. The planning cells in the offices of the Directors of Education are inadequately staffed and work without any knowledge of the field conditions. Their work is mostly administrative and financial and confined to the compilation and reporting of financial and physical targets.

Education is essentially a responsibility of the provincial government. But the Government feels that it is also a national concern and, in certain major areas, decisions ought to be taken at the national level. Thus to be very exact there is a need to regard education as a Provincial Federal partnership. On the other hand, it is necessary to remember that education, which concerns every parent and every family, has to be taken as close to the people as possible and that its administration can be best conducted by or in close association with local communities. This implies that educational planning has to be decentralized to the district level and still further down to the level of each union council. The process of educational planning in a federal democracy like this has thus to be the right mix of centralization in the appropriate sectors with a large amount of decentralization in other sectors and especially in administration. Care should, however, be taken that the parts fall coherently into the totality of a broad national plan, and that possible contradictions are eliminated.

The Government felt that decentralization in planning at the district level was not possible until recently because of the lack of institutions of local government. However, as they are available now a start can be made. Not only can such a process ensure the involvement of local communities in nation-building activities, it can facilitate in due course of time, the availability of their resources as well. It is an essential step towards the mobilization of people and possesses immense potential in its wake.

Such is the rationale which led to the adoption of an experimental scheme effective for one district with the technical and financial assistance from UNICEF. Through the mobilization of resource persons from within the local communities the scheme aims to formulate a data-base in the first instance and then to use the same data-base in spelling out an action plan. The enthusiasm with which the scheme has been received, and the fervour which the activity has generated was eye-opening in many respects even for the organizers of the scheme. There is absolutely no doubt that the experiment has been a great success and leadership from more and more districts is putting pressure on the provincial governments to let them replicate the programme as developed in this one district.

The Centre School

The Centre School is an innovative type of institution established at a functional level with a view to enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of the sub-system of primary education. The concept has been specifically designed to suit the objectives of the Primary Education Project and is, at the moment, under implementation only within the Punjab province on a pilot basis. It is an institution which can conveniently fit into the existing scheme of institutions. At the same time it possesses tremendous potential for improving things at grass-roots level. The informal monitoring carried out so far confirms the expectations which went into its design.

In the Punjab the Primary Education Project (PEP) extends to only ten of its districts. Within each district either two or three IRDP centres are covered by PEP. As many as 60 primary schools have been selected from each of these Centres for purposes of operations under PEP. Where there are three IRDP Centres within a district, two are for male and one is for female primary schools. However, where there are two IRDP Centres one is exclusively for male primary schools while the other has 60 male as well as 60 female primary schools placed with the PEP. Thus within each district 120 boys, and 60 girls' schools are covered by the Primary Education Project. The total number of schools in the Punjab under the Project is 1,800. Again, all these schools have been divided evenly into 300 clusters (each cluster possessing six schools).

An IRDP Centre of the Project has either one set of ten clusters of primary schools male/female or two sets of ten clusters of male and ten clusters of female primary schools. Each set of ten clusters of schools (60 schools in each set) is looked after by a male or a female supervisor. He/She is being assisted by ten Learning Co-ordinators. Thus each cluster of Schools has the facility of one Learning Co-ordinator as well as one Supervisor to ten Clusters.

With each cluster of six schools there is one school known as Centre School. The Centre School is usually the best school of the cluster. It is, very often, the oldest school of the cluster with the largest enrolment, maximum and the most experienced staff and possessing physical facilities better than at others. Again, the other five schools are within easy reach. The Centre School acts, additionally, as the headquarter of the Learning Co-ordinator.

One room has been constructed at each of these centre schools to be used as an office by the Learning Co-ordinator and as a meeting place for the teachers of the cluster schools. Enough furniture has been provided for the purpose. Books on education for the personal use of the Learning Co-ordinator as well as his teachers have also been made available. It is intended that teachers should assemble at the Centre School at least once in a month either for some programme of in-service training or, may be for an exchange of experience. This mechanism is also adopted in case some urgent information is asked for by the district authorities.

The major function of the Centre School is to break the terrible isolation under which each school works at the moment. The intended purpose is to create such conditions as may enable a small group of schools working in a neighbourhood to make a co-operative effort to improve teaching learning. A Centre School is a meeting point – where all the teachers working within the cluster can meet for the purpose of enhancing their professional growth and to discuss other matters of mutual interest. Here is a place where a relatively new teacher can meet with an experienced teacher and discuss his school's or even his personal problems in relation to the community where he works to enquire about what may be the best way forward in the circumstances in which he finds himself. He/she can further use the small library that is available with the Centre School.

A network of schools has been established with the potential to be exploited in the following specific ways:

a) some suitable reprographic equipment can be made available to a Centre School with a view to converting it into a clearing house for the dissemination of the required professional knowledge – utilized for the preparation of learning materials for pupils as well as for developing restricted response tests;

b) if some self-contained modules are developed complete with all instructions and relevant materials the Centre Schools can be employed as venues for conducting courses;

c) the Centre School provides an excellent forum for the introduction of modernization in the teaching/learning process through such mechanisms as the Mobile Projection Unit or Mobile Library.

Reading teaching project

Any attempt to improve the quality of life of all sections of the population in the context of today's Pakistan would have to cater for the required educational inputs. The incidence of a high illiteracy rate has serious implications for the capacity of the population to attain better health, nutrition and sanitation practices and thereby to contribute to national development. This goal targeted towards the optimum realization of human potential further demands the qualitative regeneration of education at all levels.

Recent attempts undertaken in NWFP to effect improvement in learning on the part of children at primary level indicate a general state of under-development in the broad area of communication which is proving to be quite a real constraint. Teachers need more knowledge and understanding of the process associated with language acquisition in general and reading in particular before they can embark on programmes suitable for meaningful learning.

The high primary school drop-out rate coupled with the fact that for the majority of students it is the only formal education that they will receive emphasizes the necessity for the teaching of reading to be as effective as possible in order to provide some basis for self directed learning. In general the primary grades are taught by the least qualified teachers. Thus the short exposure to school which most children have is spent with those who are least able to equip them with the competencies essential for children to attempt later self learning.

Pakistani educationalists and outside consultants have identified the following factors which appear most significant within the classroom setting and which need some positive improvements to be made quickly and effectively. These are:

a) teachers use outmoded methods of teaching which feature meaningless chanting, rote learning and no attempt at teaching for comprehension;

b) reading books developed and prepared without consideration for appropriate vocabulary; and

c) complete non-use of no or low-cost teaching/learning aids.

To ameliorate such problems a Reading/Teaching Project financed by UNICEF is to be introduced nationally in three phases. The purpose of Phase I would be the comparative investigation of learning strategies appropriate for the teaching of Urdu language. This study will be conducted only in NWFP and its findings will be applied to the other provinces as well. The investigation involves the comparison of the effectiveness of several different methodologies for teaching reading in Urdu at grade I in terms of the learners performance levels over one school year.

Phase II will deal with the establishment of graded vocabulary specifications and will be conducted separately in all the four provinces because of their liguistic differences. The specifications will provide standardized vocabulary lists for each province for each grade of the primary school, in the Urdu language. After the establishment of province-specific graded vocabulary lists, national lists will be established through consultations among provinces.

Phase III will be devoted to the development of the Reading Kit. This phase will also be conducted in all the provinces. It is anticipated that province-specific vocabulary lists and reading scale norms will show differences. For example, it is likely the Punjab list will be longer than the list from Baluchistan. Considering that Urdu is the national language, it is necessary from both the points of view of national identity and integrity, and of social justice, that over time, all learners in all provinces achieve common nationally specified standards in Urdu. The development of the Reading Kit may be considered in terms of two operations as follows: (a) development of a basic province-specific kit to enhance reading ability in a given province; and (b) development of an extension kit which will enhance the achievement of learners from a province-specific level to the common National achievement level in the Urdu language.

All the four provincial governments have accepted the project.

Chapter Eight

NEW PROGRAMMES

A major transformation is needed to effect improvement in the effectiveness of primary education to improve the quality of teachers to lay special emphasis on the combination of teaching and research, and to drastically reform the management infra-structure. The twin challenges of quantitative expansion and qualitative regeneration may be specific to the present and not to Pakistan alone. One can learn a lot from the development of the educational systems elsewhere and one can draw inferences which have much meaning. These two challenges appear to be in a dialectical relationship with each other. Any worthwhile further expansion is not possible without the incorporation of some improvement of the qualitative aspect. However, between the two, the qualitative dimension should enjoy the primacy. It is this aspect which has remained neglected for so long. Any attempt to do something in this respect in the past has remained restricted and largely ineffective. Thus the educationalists within Pakistan feel that the real need is action. Consistent with this thinking, of late a number of programmes have been launched to face the issues indicated above.

Appropriate instructional model

The diversity of approaches, methods and content found in innovations internationally, may reflect the uncertainty which exists over how to proceed. The present lack of information, in particular about the effects of different teaching strategies, puts their practitioners in the position of advocating a particular strategy on grounds that are little more than beliefs. Subsequent decisions on adoption are embarrasingly unsubstantiated by prior knowledge of the likely effects of the chosen strategy, intended or unintended.

The conditions and constraints that effect the consequences of introducing a particular change in teaching strategy extend far beyond the classroom and the school. Factors such as the commitment of the teachers (which might be influenced by their socio-economic status) or the home background of the children or the social values of society, as evidenced in the allocation of educational resources to different groups, might well have as much part in learning outcomes as changes in classroom materials or approaches.

Within this context an attempt is being made to outline the main dimensions of the classroom teaching/learning process and by doing so to highlight some of the basic issues. Based on these dimensions an empirical model is being attempted. It is presumed that this model will be employed to measure the teaching/learning conditions of any classroom at any point in time. It follows that the description of a particular classroom in terms of its position in the dimension will yield a comprehensive picture of its overall condition. A description undertaken similarly but at a different point in time will provide a basis not only for comparision but also for evaluation.

The decisions that are at the heart of an appropriate instructional model are those that have to be made about how to organize and supervise pupils' learning. In times of change these decisions ought to be made consciously associating always those who would be called upon to adopt them. Decisions about one aspect of the learning environment in the classroom should be consistent with decisions about other aspects. This plan of action which results from taking a set of self-consistent decisions about the classroom learning environment is what is meant actually by teaching/learning strategy.

However, different strategies may place varying emphases upon the decision about a particular feature of the classroom. In one strategy the choice of whether pupils work individually or in groups may not be considered as important as in another. Again, in one particular strategy it may be crucial that pupils work in groups of heterogeneous ability so that the more able can help the less able whilst in another strategy the composition of the groups could be relatively less important. One of the obstacles to achieving a coherent view of the strengths and weaknesses of alternative strategies is the possibility that different sets of variables are needed to describe different strategies. But comparison of one strategy with another is difficult unless some agreed framework is used and decisions with regard to important variables are stated in all cases.

Although there is so far no defined set of variables (instructional model) which can be universally agreed upon, none the less a step towards developing strategies in terms of positions along a series of dimensions is being made which represent the most important features of the decision-making process.

Ideally it would be most useful to arrive at a set of dimension which encompass all important features of as many strategies as can be envisaged. Such a set is under consideration in N.W.F.P. and at Gilgit. Ideas are being pooled and the exercise is in progress. In the meantime, a few dimensions have been selected to illustrate the way in which this approach provides the appropriate instructional model. These dimensions have been chosen because they represent aspects of the teaching/learning process which are considered to effect outcomes which can be varied, and about which decisions must be made explicityly or implicitly.

The dimensions chosen are: the pupils' role; content of activities; pupil participation; influence of feedback; and teacher-pupil relationship.

In terms of each of these dimensions there is a continuum of possible behaviour. This range of variation is being spelled out with the intention of making a conscious decision as to the extent of appropriate behaviour vis-a-vis certain dimensions. The aggregate of all these dimensions along with the level desired will constitute the appropriate instructional model. It is a fascinating effort which is being undertaken with far-reaching implications.

The conceptual frame-work of the proposed Instructional Model as outlined above is far from complete. However, consistent with the conditions that teachers are inadequately trained, that the existing traditional teaching practice dates back a long way and the fact that supervisors do not expect anything different or innovative one has got to plan change keeping in mind a long time perspective. The whole process is, of course, being closely monitored and an in-built mechanism of evaluation at all stages is also being planned. The programme is in very competent hands and it is expected that very relevant lessons will be learnt for wider adaptation/replication.

Legislation for compulsory primary education

Primary education has a chequered history. It has been the avowed policy of successive Governments, which found full expression in all the policy documents and the National Education Policies devised and implemented during the last 36 years, to achieve the coveted aim of universalization of primary education, but the goal has not been attained. The low enrolment in the primary schools of age group 5-9 and the high drop-outs have mainly contributed to this. The situation is more disheartening when we see the widening disparities in the participation rate between urban, rural male and female. There are 63 per cent boys (rural 58 per cent) and 32 per cent girls (rural 20 per cent) who are enrolled in primary schools. Nearly 50 per cent of them drop out before completing five years of schooling and join the swelling rank of illiterates. The physical infrastructure is quite inadequate, which is conducive to the existence of ghost schools and teacher absenteeism. The rapid increase in population and slow expansion of primary education has assumed a fearful proportion. It is encouraging that the Sixth Five Year Plan has fully grasped the gravity of the situation and has given the highest priority to the promotion of primary education.

There is a provision of Rs. 7 billion in the Sixth Plan for the promotion of primary education. The plan provides for special programmes such as Mosque Schools or Mohalla Schools, with lowered qualifications for teachers in order to bring the school nearer the clientele. Universal compulsory education will also be instituted within the plan period. All boys of the relevant age-group will be put into Class I in the middle years of the plan and all the girls by the terminal year (1987-1988). A minimum of three years of schooling will be made obligatory to begin with and the tenure will be gradually raised to ten years.

To translate into reality the objectives enunciated in the Sixth Five Year Plan, the Ministry of Education has prepared an action plan identifying development projects and programmes in the sphere of education deviating marginally from the guidelines given in the Plan. The promotion of primary education has been given the highest priority. A most important feature of the Ministry's action plan is the marked distinction between elementary and primary education. The main thrust is on the quantitative expansion at the elementary level and reduction in the cost by doing away with the concept of separate schools for girls. The revival of Mosque Schools particularly in the scattered human settlement and habitation should give further impetus because it will reduce the distances and encourage the reluctant parents to send their children to the Mosque School being opened nearby. Besides, with the establishment of Classes I-III in the newly opended Mosque Schools compulsory elementary education can be legislated since parents will no longer have adequate excuses for evading the compulsory legislation.

In order to hasten the process of achieving universalization of primary education by the target dates, it has been considered necessary to introduce and enforce legislation for compulsory primary education up to Class III only. The powers to enforce the legislation in any Union Council or other area, lie with the Government, but can be delegated to the subordinate officers. The enforcement would be made through the Compulsory Education Authority. At the Union Council level, this Authority may comprise the following:

i) The Chairman of the Union Council (who will be the ex-officio Chairman of the Compulsory Education Authority);

ii) Headmaster of the largest Middle (or in the absence of that Primary) school in the Union Council; and

iii) The functionary of the Education Department in the Union Council by whatever name he may be called.

The Compulsory Education Authority shall ensure that every child required to attend a school does so. It will be the responsibility of the parent of the child to cause the child to attend the school. In case a parent has failed to cause the child to attend, the Authority, after affording a chance to parents of being heard and after necessary enquiry, may pass an order directing the parent to have the child attend the school up to a fixed date and if he fails to do so the Authority shall sue the parent in the court. Similarly the Compulsory Education Authority will be empowered to sue a person who employs a child of school going age.

In the urban areas the Compulsory Education Authority may be constituted around the Ward Committee in the larger municipalities or if there is no Ward Committee, the Municipal Corporation or Committee or the Town Committee, as the case may be. This has been left flexible so that the structures can be adjusted to the situation. Similar arrangements may be made in the Cantonment Boards.

Local supervision. Since independence in 1947 the educational system has expanded by a factor of 8-9 in terms of the number of institutions. and by a factor of 10-11 in terms of enrolment. Practically, the whole concentration has remained focused towards quantitative expansion of actual school plants and their educational institutions. The supervision has, however, lagged behind.

The main purpose of local supervision is to gain the confidence and faith of the local population in the educational process, to bridge the gap that exists between the school and the community and to augment the resources of the school with the intentions of transforming the educational process making it thereby more efficient, effective and relevant. This effort must pave the way for interlinking education with the efforts which are being undertaken to overcome the socio-economic under-development of the country.

The introduction of the concept of local government and the establishment of institutions as a consequence has provided a unique opportunity for bringing the school and the community closer. The schools are there to prepare a new generation with the knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them to deal with any likely emergent challenge. It is the communities duty to ensure that schools do a really effective job to the satisfaction of the entire country and its people.

As a first step to involve the community in the educational process it is proposed that Education Committees, for the explicit purpose of over-viewing primary education, may be constituted in each Union Council with the following composition:

A. Chairman of the Union Council concerned. – Chairman

B. Headmaster of the Middle School with the highest enrolment in the Union Council. In case there is no Middle School in the Union Council, the – Member

Headmaster of the Primary School with the highest enrolment.

C. The representative of the Provincial Education Department at the Union Council level such as Learning Co-ordinator, Resource Person, Assistant Supervisor etc. – Member/ Secretary.

The Union Council's Education Committee may be entrusted to:

a) take measures to ensure full attendance by teachers and students in the primary schools of the concerned Union Council;

b) identify priorities for repair work to primary school buildings;

c) encourage the use of primary teaching kits in the schools;

d) recommend the names of teachers for special awards on the basis of their performance in the school; and

e) appoint in each village where there is a primary school/ mosque school a person who shall act as a voluntary supervisor for the schools in that village and shall report to the Union Council Education Committee. Such voluntary supervisors shall be selected from amongst the literate retired persons or elderly respected people of the village.

The Committee should visit the schools at least once in two months and then issue a report.

Local supervision provides an ideal mechanism for associating the community with the school. It will enable the interests of the respective parties to converge in such a way that it can operate to the advantage of all. It will provide at least a means to overcome disadvantages accruing as a result of the present distant line of responsibility and extended span of control.

District Primary Education Authority. Up to the time of partition, when it was discontinued, the local authorities used to be associated with education. Ever-since there has been a public debate. It is generally accepted that local authorities do succed in evoking local interest and local enthusiasm and effectively bring local knowledge to bear on the solution of the problems. Their financial contribution to the support of education is generally not large but is substantial in the case of richer corporations. Their main weaknesses, however, are the problems caused to teachers, through frequent transfers and postings and through involvement in local factions and politics. This is the reason why all teachers' association resent being placed under local authorities. This evil increases as the delegation of authority goes to lower levels.

As an ultimate objective it is essential that schools and their local communities should be intimately associated in the educational process. It harnesses local knowledge, interest and enthusiasm for the development of education. As an immediate goal, District Education Committees with the Chairman of the District Council as the chairman of the Education Committee, have been constituted with the District Education Officer as secretary. This Committee acts as a watchdog over the various development activities which are in progress and is to decide such matters as location of a new school or the school that needs upgradation.

The ultimate objective to be reached is the establishment of a competent local education authority which may be designated as the District Primary Education Authority. Such an authority would be in change of all education up to grade V. The jurisdiction of this authority should cover the entire area of the district with the exception of municipalities within the district. All municipalities ought to have a similar authority for their own areas.

The transition from the immediate to the ultimate objective will have to proceed through a number of carefully planned stages. Meanwhile, the primary school teachers have been brought on to a district cadre, and no primary school teacher is transferred from one district to another without his/her consent. Even the budget is spelled out district-wise, at least in one of the four provinces. It is excellent that different provinces have the option to proceed towards a national goal with varying speeds consistent with the objective conditions as prevailing there. The essential point to understand is that there is no virtue in adhering to a mechanical uniformity.

In all such association of the local authorities with education, adequate safeguards need to be provided to ensure that the teachers are not harassed and that they do not get involved in local factions and politics. For this purpose it is being thought expedient to vest the control over the teachers not in the local authority, but in its Administrative Officer (who should be an officer of the education department seconded to serve under the local authority), to associate him closely with the District Primary Education Authority in the discharge of his responsibility. Another point to be taken particular care of is concerned with the quality control which should, under all circumstances lie with the Department of Education which should increasingly seek to perform professional functions in additon to managerial or administrative ones.

National Institute of Communication in Education

This is a new organization being proposed by the Government as a unit within the Ministry of Education. The purpose of the institute is to determine as how best communication media can augment or support community development. NICE, as proposed, will endeavour to set up a development support communication which pays attention to all issues, particularly when innovations are proposed. For example one of the issues which NICE could take up relates to the attitude of many people towards formal education and especially towards the schooling of girls. They may not be able to articulate it but they do unconsciously feel that the educational system based on an alien model has failed to eliminate poverty or reduce inequalities. They think that the school does not serve as a powerful force to eliminate prejudice or suppression. They have the idea that such schooling was the need of the colonial powers to develop economically, culturally and politically a subservient class of people which would be oriented towards the need of more dominant societies. NICE can launch a systematic massive campaign with a view to motivating parents to seek admission of their sons and daughters into the formal schools.

NICE would concentrate its efforts on rural education, mass education, civic education, religious education and will supplement the formal system of education. With the ultimate objective of imparting education, various communication strategies, techniques and campaigns would be developed to supplement the development efforts in the country.

The objectives of the Institute are to:

a) Develop, produce, distribute and evaluate:
   i) self learning packages for both the non-formal and formal system of education,
   ii) religious education programmes for Pakistanis abroad,
   iii) enrichment programmes for the formal system;

b) Develop communication strategies and to produce campaign-oriented public education programmes on literacy, health and nutrition, agriculture, population planning, and rural development;

c) Develop and produce inter-personal communication packages;

d) Develop and produce learning material for the neo-literates;

e) Promote inter-university lecture exchange programmes through the effective utilization of media;

f) Promote an increased awareness of the contribution of science and technology to the quality of life in society today; and

g) Assist in the improvement of the quality of textbooks particularly the diagrams, illustrations, graphs and pictures.

The paramount importance of the above objectives for national development provides a clear logic for the establishment of NICE which will ensure communication support to all educational processes aimed at improving the moral and physical health, skills and attitudes, productively and overall quality of life of the people. It will also vouchsafe proper use of communication technology which should be regarded as an essential component in any effort desired to mobilize whole communities.

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APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

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PREFACE

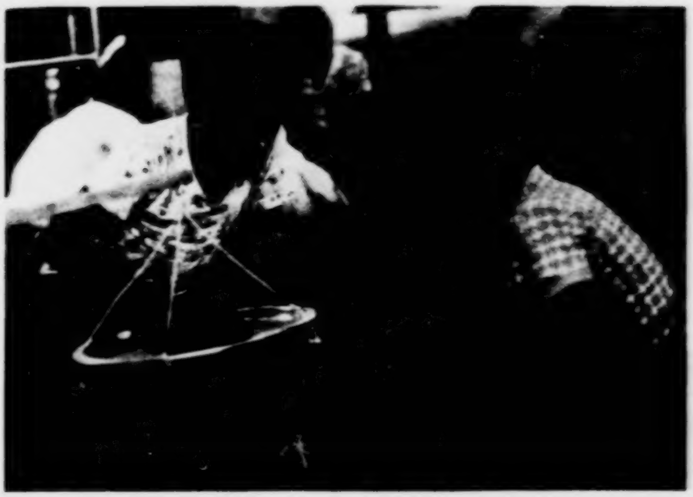
Universalization of primary education (UPE) is one of the major priority goals of countries in the region of Asia and the Pacific. The developing countries in particular, are now vigorously engaged in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans and programmes aimed at making adequate and suitable opportunities for primary education available as soon as possible for all children and young people.

In 1983, as part of a major project under the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) on the Universalization of Education, 12 countries in the region undertook national studies. The national studies were conducted to analyse the stage reached by the countries in UPE, and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level; to review significant new and current developments in programmes and projects which the countries have undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education; and to contribute to achieving the target of primary education for all children. The studies were conducted by national institutes and professional groups under the guidance of high-level committees of the Ministries of Education in the respective countries.

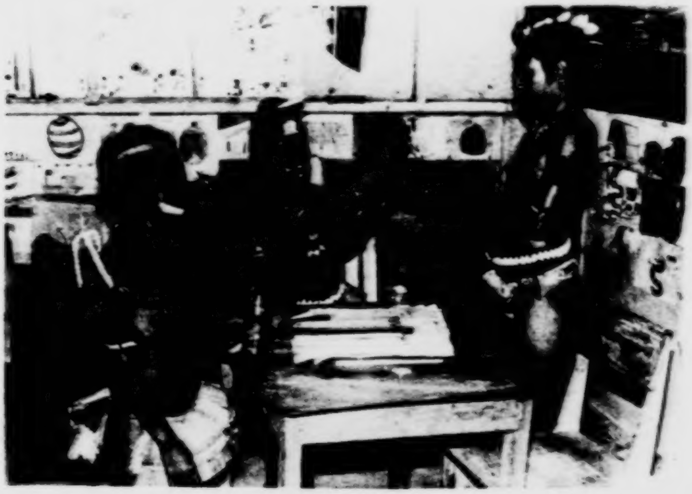
On completion of the national studies, a Regional Review Meeting was held in November 1983 which undertook an in-depth analysis of the methodologies of the national studies and examined their findings. The meeting also made suggestions for improving and updating the national studies tabled for review.

Following the recommendations of the review meeting, study teams in the participating countries have revised and updated the national studies. The present publication is an outcome of the collaborative and co-operative efforts of the member countries in understanding the progress made in the universalization of primary education, the nature and extent of problems and issues and their implications for achieving UPE in the region before the end of this century.

This series which provides a comparative view of the position of and progress made in UPE has been published with the view that the countries in the region, in their bid to step up measures for UPE, will find the information, experiences and conclusions useful in pursuing the goal of 'education for all' with a new vigor by drawing on the experiences of other countries with the same goals and objectives.



Fellow students work together during a practical session



The parents involve themselves in the school's cultural activities in a classroom situation

Music time for children

Actively working on an agricultural project

Acknowledgement *Photographs supplied by courtesy of the Ministry of Education, Papua New Guinea.*

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to present a plan for making adequate and suitable primary education available to all children and young people in Papua New Guinea. To this end the study includes (1) an analysis of the present educational system in Papua New Guinea and the problems faced in providing primary educational opportunities for all children; (2) a review of national and provincial policies and programmes for universal primary education, including the projected time frame and rate of increase in enrolment; and (3) a description of programmes and projects that Papua New Guinea has undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education and move toward the target of primary education for all.

For the purposes of this study "universalization" refers to making educational opportunities available to all seven-to-twelve-year-old children in Papua New Guinea. Such a plan involves the following considerations:

Access. Some children live in areas without schools or alternative learning facilities. They are a deprived group and educational opportunities will not be available to them until school facilities are provided. Other children have schools accessible to them but they do not attend them. This non-enrolment is due to a variety of factors, including a lack of motivation of both parents and children, inability of the schools and their programmes to attract and hold students, and socio-economic factors. In some areas schools do not have adequate teaching staff or basic amenities, or existing facilities are stretched by over crowding.

Retention/completion. Provision of educational opportunities means not only enrolment but also retention of pupils in the learning system in order to help them achieve the standards set for the first level of education.

Achievement. This refers to mastery of the primary curriculum at an acceptable standard. If schools are not able to provide suitable curriculum, children are deprived of full educational opportunity.

This study examines all three of these aspects. Statistical tables and descriptions indicate actual and target access to schools and retention of pupils, as well as levels or achievement.

Children are enrolled in primary school at the age of seven or older. Primary education is provided for six years, covering grades I to VI, after which students are selected to enter provincial high schools for grades VII to X. For the purposes of this study, grade I pupils are regarded as being 7 years old, and the whole primary school enrolment includes children from 7 to 12 years of age. Statistics of primary-school enrolment for this age-group are therefore inflated. There are a few under-age children enrolled, but there are many children older than 12 also enrolled. The figures for seven-year-olds enrolled in grade I are the least reliable. There are a few six-year-olds, many eight-and nine-year-olds and possibly a few older students included. Our data collection is not yet sufficiently refined for us to accurately collate statistics on age.

Streams of primary schooling

Five streams of schooling have been included in the statistics compiled for this paper.

Community schools. In Papua New Guinea the national primary schools are referred to as community schools. The community school system covers about 95 per cent of the enrolment in the country. These schools are controlled by the various provincial governments and each school is managed by a Board of Management made up of community members.

The curriculum is divided into two parts. The core subjects of English, mathematics, science and Community Life (social science) are the responsibility of the National Department of Education, while other subjects are the responsibility of the Provincial Divisions of Education. School inspection is a function of the national government.

International primary schools. These schools are generally run by the International Education Agency, though a few are run by church agencies. They are mainly intended for the children of expatriates who are living and working in Papua New Guinea, but many Papua New Guinea parents are now enrolling their children in these schools even though the fees are very high. The international primary schools largely follow an Australian syllabus, but they are free to develop school based curricula. The National Government is responsible for inspection of these schools as well, but through a different unit from that for the community schools.

Pre-primary programme. The North Solomons province has developed a two-year programme of pre-primary schooling in the local vernacular. Provincial authorities introduced the programme because, given the high dropout rate after primary school, they felt children should have a longer exposure to school. Normally children enter grade I at seven and leave primary school at 13. In this programme, they enter pre-primary at seven and primary school at nine, and would leave primary school at 15. It was also felt that children should learn to read and write their mother tongue before entering the national system. The results of this pilot programme have been so successful that the province is now planning its expansion. Since for this study all grade I pupils have been counted as seven years old, and so have all those in the first year of this pre-primary programme, the figures for seven years old in primary school in the North Solomons are highly inflated.

Church-run schools. One church in Papua New Guinea runs a complete system of education from grades I through XII comparable to the national system and with the same syllabus. These schools, however, receive no financial assistance from the government and remain completely independent. They have made a significant contribution to national development.

Another church agency, the Evangelical Lutheran Church of New Guinea (known as Elcong) runs a six-year programme of primary schooling in local languages. A full range of subjects is taught, with no textbooks in English. This programme is functioning in only one province and in the past its pupils have been overlooked in national censuses, but in this study they have been included.

The five church agencies (Anglican, Evangelical Alliance, Lutheran, Roman Catholic and United) work in both national and provincial institutions and are therefore involved with both the National Government and the 19 provincial governments. Co-ordination and co-operation are ensured by mutual consultation on all issues.

Hiring of teachers

Regardless of the grade taught, the type of institution – provincial or national – or the agency running the school, teachers in Papua New Guinea are all employed by the Teaching Service Commission. Its responsibility is to determine the terms and conditions of teacher employment, and ensure that these are applied.

Education boards

The National Education Board is responsible for the administration and management of national institutions. The following are the functions of this Board according to national law:

1. After consultation with provincial governments, to advise the Minister for Education on the National Education Plan;

2. To supervise implementation of the national component of the approved plan;

3. To prepare and submit to the Minister a programme for financial support of the National Education Plan;

4. To advise provincial governments, the Teaching Service Commission, Education Boards and education agencies on any matter affecting the national education system, the efficiency of schools or the welfare of teachers;

5. To allocate quotas of students to all national institutions except those exempt from quotas;

6. To establish national criteria for the selection of students to attend high schools and national institutions;

7. To approve the membership and functions of governing bodies for all national institutions, not excepted from this Act;

8. In provinces that do not have in force provincal laws relating to education.

   a) To impose fees on the parents or guardians of students attending those schools and to direct the education authority responsible for those schools to collect fees so imposed, or

b) In a case where fees are not imposed, to determine the limits within which and the conditions subject to which fees may be charged by education authorities responsible for those schools;

9. With due regard to the expressed wishes of teachers and education agencies concerned, to have responsibility for the appointment, promotion, transfer and discipline of members of the teaching service in national institutions (other than those exempt);

10. To hear and determine appeals from other education authorities in such cases and subject to such limitations and conditions as are prescribed by or under this Act or any national or provincial law relating to education matters; and

11. To hear and determine appeals in cases where the governing body of a national institution (other than those exempt) expels a student or terminates the studies of a student for academic reasons.

In the exercise of its functions, the National Education Board consults, co-operates with and advises provincial governments, Education Boards, education agencies, the Commission for Higher Education and the Teaching Service Commission on all matters in which any of them have common interests.

Provincial Education Boards are charged with the responsibility of administering provincial institutions. Their functions include:

1. In consultation with local government bodies and education agencies in the National Capital District or in a province, to draw up and submit to the National Education Board plans for the establishment and development of schools in those areas.

2. To supervise the carrying out of approved plans in relation to education in the National Capital District or province.

3. To give final approval to the list of entrants to community schools where the number of applicants exceeds the number of places available.

4. To hear and determine appeals in cases where the governing body of a school expels a student and to ensure the representation of all parties involved in the appeal.

5. To determine criteria for selecting students for provincial high schools, select students according to those criteria, and assure that boards of governors enrol students thus selected, taking into account parental preference in choice of schools.

6. To advise and make recommendations as requested by the National Education Board or an education agency on matters relating to education in the National Capital District or the province.

7. In accordance with the wishes of teachers and education agencies concerned, to assume responsibility for the appointment, transfer and discipline of members of the Teaching Service in member community schools, vocational centres and provincial high schools within the National Capital District or the province.

8. When necessary,

a) To impose fees on the parents or guardians of students attending schools and to direct the responsible education authorities to collect fees so imposed,

b) In schools where such fees are not imposed – to determine the limits within which and the conditions subject to which fees may be imposed and charged by the education authorities responsible.

9. According to the direction of the head of the department responsible for financial matters, to administer and account for any funds that may be committed for special purposes.

10. To collaborate in organizing and providing adult education in the National Capital District or a province.

11. To approve the membership and functions of governing bodies of member schools.

12. To take responsibility for the selection of teachers in the National Capital District or a province to attend professional training courses approved by the Teaching Service Commission.

13. Any other functions in relation to education that are conferred or delegated by or under a national or provincial law, or are necessary for or ancillary to the functions set out above.

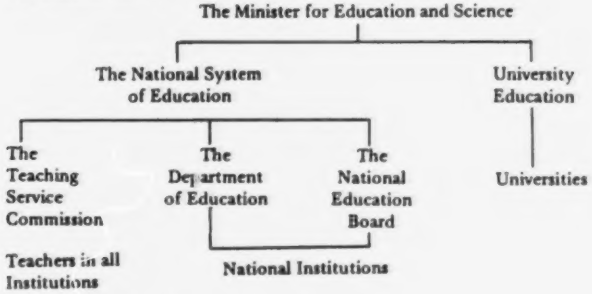
Provincial Education Boards consult, co-operate with, and advise provincial governments, local government bodies, the Teaching Service Commission, education agencies and school governing bodies in the National Capital District or provinces on matters of common interest. Except in staff or individual matters, these Boards are expected to notify the National Capital District or province of their decisions and principles.

The Provincial Education Boards are not empowered to determine the minimum age for school entry, the number of teaching days per year, the number of years of instruction or the maximum pupil-teacher ratio in provincial schools. A provincial government, however, may pass a law empowering it to determine curriculum content, standards and examinations, number of hours of instruction and the language of instruction. Subjects in the community school curriculum are nationally prescribed.

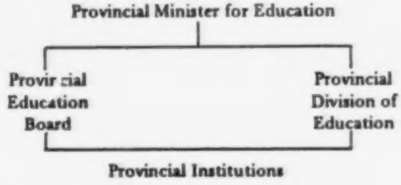
The Ministry of Education

The diagrams below explain the organization of the Ministry of Education at the national and provincial levels.

National Level


The Minister for Education and Science
The National System of Education
University Education
The Teaching Service Commission
The Department of Education
The National Education Board
Universities
Teachers in all Institutions
National Institutions

Provincial level


Provincial Minister for Education
Provincial Education Board
Provincial Division of Education
Provincial Institutions

Chapter Two

THE EXISTING EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Prior to 1940 education was a very haphazard venture in Papua New Guinea. Mainly carried out by mission societies, it usually meant a basic literacy in the local language and numeracy. Some students who mastered these subjects were then introduced to the English language and to enrichment subjects, as well as to basic arithmetic. The extent of their progress depended on the availability and the interests of individual missionaries.

After the Second World War the Australian Administration began to pay serious attention to the establishment of a department of education. The government developed its own system and encouraged churches through grants-in-aid to continue their educational work. Thus encouraged, churches started to develop a system parallel to that of the government. The first comprehensive primary syllabus was developed in 1962 by a committee of leading educationalists in both the government and the churches. Teachers in the church schools had to pass the same qualifying examinations as those in government schools, although the former were trained in church teachers' colleges. All teachers taught the same syllabus, but church school teachers received only a fraction of the salary of government teachers through the grant-in-aid system.

In the mid-and late 1960s, Papua New Guinean church teachers protested this situation. Administrators also began to ask why there were different systems doing the same thing but under such different conditions. There was widespread discussion of a unified system that would still allow diversity.

The Australian Government set up a commission that travelled widely in Papua New Guinea and recommended a system of education that allowed several partners to work side by side, it also recommended decentralization of educational functions and responsibilities. In the late 1960s this proposal was accepted by the Government. The

Education Act passed in 1970 set up Provincial Education Boards responsible to the National Education Board. The subsequent Teaching Service Act established the Teaching Service Commission to employ all teachers in the new national system.

By 1975, when Papua New Guinea gained independence, the country had its own syllabus, and was developing a curriculum that would be even more Papua New Guinean. Though education policies were set nationally, decision-making was decentralized. The Organic Law on Provincial Government of 1978 enabled the National Education Board to delegate necessary functions to new Provincial Governments, who then assumed control of the Provincial Education Boards. A new Education Act was passed in July 1983 to enable every province to develop its own educational policies for the administration of primary schools and non-core subjects in the curriculum, using provincial funds. The National Government mean-while funds primary education under stated conditions.

Compulsory education

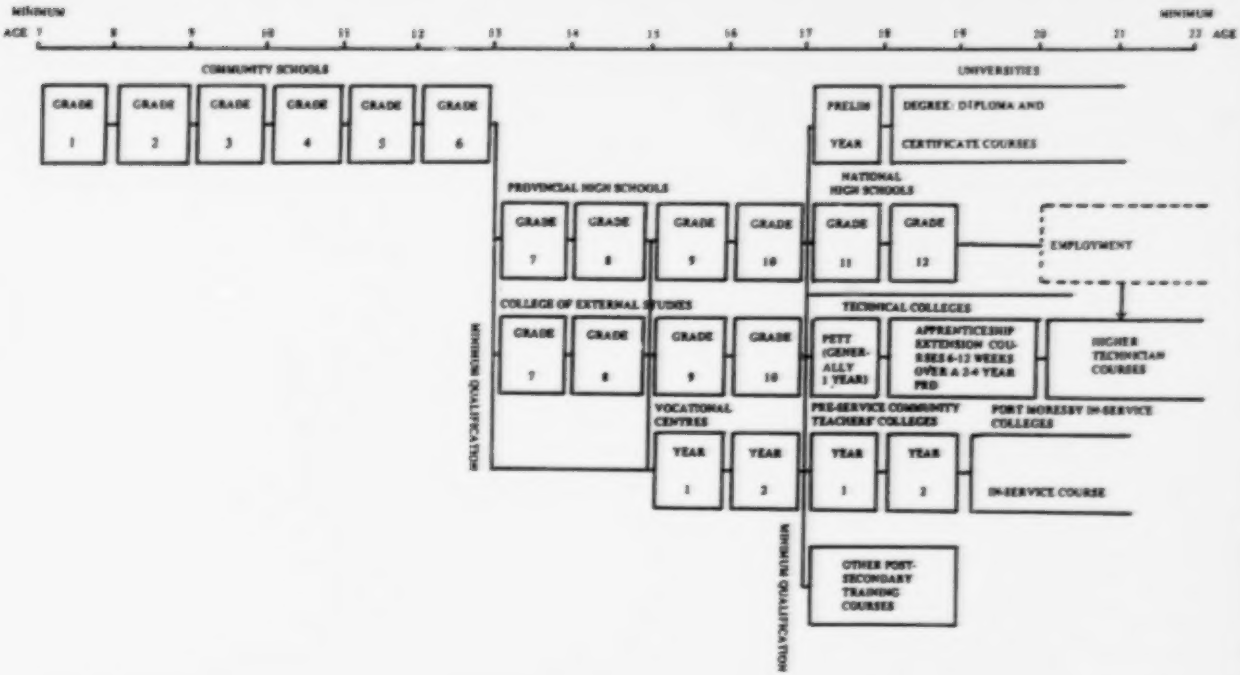
There can be no law for compulsory education in Papua New Guinea as long as the country cannot provide access to schooling for all its children. Provinces can draw up legislation for compulsory education in areas where it regards facilities as adequate for the school age population but enforcement of such policy at present would be extremely difficult.

Structure of the education system

The system of education in Papua New Guinea from primary through post-secondary levels is outlined on the next page.

Educational planning

Provincial planning. The provinces are responsible for planning provincial pre-primary, primary (grades I to VI), secondary (grades VII to X) and vocational (post grade VI) education. They are also responsible for non-formal education for out-of-school young people. The country is only beginning to realize the magnitude of this last task. The graph on page 12 shows that students drop out of school in increasing numbers as they move up from one level to the next.


MINIMUM AGE
7
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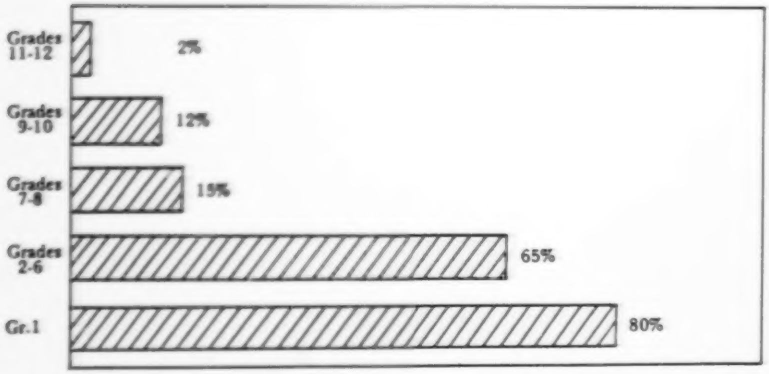
MINIMUM AGE
COMMUNITY SCHOOLS
GRADE 1
GRADE 2
GRADE 3
GRADE 4
GRADE 5
GRADE 6
UNIVERSITIES
PRELIM YEAR
DEGREE: DIPLOMA AND CERTIFICATE COURSES
PROVINCIAL HIGH SCHOOLS
GRADE 7
GRADE 8
GRADE 9
GRADE 10
NATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS
GRADE 11
GRADE 12
EMPLOYMENT
COLLEGE OF EXTERNAL STUDIES
GRADE 7
GRADE 8
GRADE 9
GRADE 10
TECHNICAL COLLEGES
PETT (GENERALLY 1 YEAR)
APPRENTICESHIP EXTENSION COURSES 6-12 WEEKS OVER A 2-4 YEAR PRD
HIGHER TECHNICIAN COURSES
MINIMUM QUALIFICATION
VOCATIONAL CENTRES
YEAR 1
YEAR 2
PRE-SERVICE COMMUNITY TEACHERS' COLLEGES
YEAR 1
YEAR 2
PORT MORESBY IN-SERVICE COLLEGES
IN-SERVICE COURSE
MINIMUM QUALIFICATION
OTHER POST-SECONDARY TRAINING COURSES

Each province has a primary education Planning Committee headed by an Education Planner. The National Department of Education is training these planners at the University of Papua New Guinea, and Regional Planning Advisors also provide on-the-job training.

School Enrolment



This training will continue at least until 1988. The provincial Planning Committees include representatives from church agencies and have access to a considerable amount of local knowledge. Each committee is responsible for producing a five-year plan that has to be approved by the Provincial Education Board and then presented to the Provincial Government for endorsement. The provinces have seriously examined their systems, identified problems and formulated strategies, although many of them still lack finances to implement these strategies.

The National Government is responsible for training administrators and this is an important need at the provincial level. Rather than appointing education officers with proven experience and some training to administrative positions, some provinces are showing a tendency to promote less able officers.

The National Government sends five senior officers per year for a three-month training course overseas. This has proven very valuable but it is not adequate. The Department of Education is therefore planning to broaden the responsibility of its regional planning advisors to include training as well as educational planning and administration. Provincial and regional workshops and on-the-job follow-up and training are projected for the next four years.

Equity. The National Government is committed to a policy of equity in regard to educational opportunity in the provinces. It therefore provides annual funds to disadvantaged provinces to help them improve access to primary schooling. These are conditional grants worked on a per-pupil index based on the percentage of children enrolled in school. The pupil index for the most disadvantaged province must be at least six times that of the index for the most advantaged province. When the upper and lower indices are set, those in-between are proportionate to the percentage of the 7-to 12- year-old population enrolled in school. The index is multiplied by the enrolment to give the total grant to the disadvantaged province. The province is then able to decide for itself how to use the funds, which must be spent on primary education. Originally the national government allocated these grants for improving access only, but later relaxed conditions to cover improvement of any of the three aspects of universalization (access, retention/completion and achievement).

The tables on the next two pages outline the allocation of this equity funding in 1983 and 1984.

National planning. The National Government prepares a rolling plan for four years at a time, with annual up-dates. This planning covers the following areas relevant to the universalization of primary education:

1. *The development of teacher education.* The National Government must keep three years ahead of provincial governments in making enough teachers available each year for the expanding primary system. This means the provincial five-year plans have to be studied carefully to assess the number of teachers needed for the nation. An over-supply of teachers with no possibility of employment is not acceptable to the national government and an under-supply is not acceptable to provincial governments. There must therefore be careful planning at all levels.

2. *The inspectorate.* The National Government must supply inspectors to match the growing number of primary teachers. It must also lower the inspector: teacher ratio and must provide extra inspectors for this reason as well.

Equity table for 1983 (In K 000's)

Province	*Percentage of 17-12-year-olds enrolled*	*Money Index in Kina**	*1982 Enrolment*	*1983 Allocation*
Southern Highlands	49.1	6.00	21,427	125.0
Western Highlands	52.5	5.37	22,569	120.0
Enga	53.8	5.12	14,020	70.0
Madang	55.8	4.75	20,713	95.0
Simbu	56.3	4.65	15,311	70.0
Eastern Highlands	57.7	4.40	27,364	120.0
Morobe	60.3	3.91	31,651	120.0
West Sepik	60.4	3.89	11,980	45.0
East Sepik	61.2	3.74	23,368	85.0
NATIONAL	62.5	3.50	321,046	1,130.0
Oro	65.3	3.20	9,507	30.0
Western	68.0	2.92	9,626	25.0
Gulf	68.3	2.89	8,161	20.0
Milne Bay	69.7	2.75	16,564	45.0
Central	71.7	2.55	15,121	35.0
North Solomons	71.8	2.53	15,197	35.0
West New Britain	77.2	1.96	12,557	25.0
National Capital	78.1	1.87	13,630	25.0
New Ireland	78.4	1.83	8,670	15.0
East New Britain	85.5	1.09	19,445	20.0
Manus	86.4	1.00	4,165	5.0

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* Approximately 0.84 PNG Kina (k) = One United States dollar.

Equity table for 1984 (In K 000's)

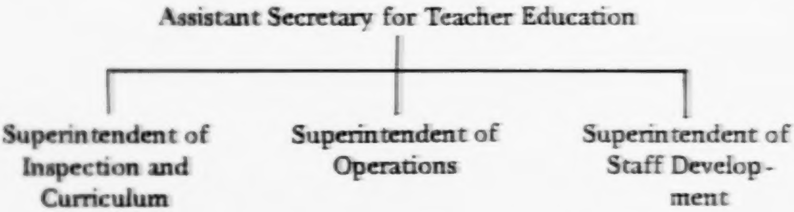
Province	*Percentage of 7-12-year-olds enrolled*	*Money Index in Kina*	*1982 Enrolment*	*1984 Allocation*
Western Highlands	46.6	7.00	20,039	140.0
Southern Highlands	48.1	6.69	20,993	140.0
Simbu	51.6	5.95	14,041	83.5
Enga	51.9	5.89	13,523	80.0
Eastern Highlands	52.6	5.74	24,943	143.0
Madang	56.1	5.00	20,811	104.0
West Sepik	58.9	4.42	11,678	52.0
P.N.G.	60.9	4.00	312,620	1,300.0
East Sepik	62.0	3.87	23,674	92.0
Morobe	62.4	3.83	32,771	125.5
Oro	62.6	3.80	9,117	35.0
Gulf	66.2	3.39	7,906	27.0
Western	68.3	3.15	9,662	30.5
Milne Bay	68.4	3.14	16,261	51.0
Central	69.9	2.97	14,743	44.0
North Solomons	70.5	2.90	14,926	43.0
West New Britain	76.3	2.23	12,413	28.0
National Capital	78.4	2.10	13,691	29.0
New Ireland	78.8	2.06	8,717	18.0
East New Britain	81.4	1.64	18,518	30.5
Manus	87.0	1.00	4,193	4.0

3. *Curriculum development, especially in core subjects.*

District-level planning. Every province but one consists of several districts. Provinces are strongly encouraged to attempt district-level planning for educational development with an emphasis on disadvantaged districts. Another option would be for the National Government to identify disadvantaged districts and allocate more resources to them, but it is preferred at present to have the provinces carry out such planning. The National Government now requires statistics compiled by district rather than on a provincial basis.

Teacher education.

Papua New Guinea has nine colleges for teacher education at the primary level. Eight of these are pre-service colleges and one is for in-service teacher education. Seven of the colleges for pre-service teacher education are run by churches and one by the government. All are part of the national education system. The National Department of Education provides curriculum input and the inspectorate, and responsibility is divided as follows:


Assistant Secretary for Teacher Education
Superintendent of Inspection and Curriculum
Superintendent of Operations
Superintendent of Staff Development

Each teacher training college has an Academic Advisory Committee which is responsible to the college's Governing Council for the development of curriculum. The Inspectorate and the Education Faculty of the University of Papua New Guinea both have representatives on these Committees. There are also regular workshops for senior lecturers in each subject from all colleges. The curriculum units for core subjects in primary schools also have representation on the Committees and in the workshops. In this way curriculum development and teacher education work together to ensure standards are maintained.

Quite a few lecturers are able to gain higher degrees or work overseas. For some years the University has offered a Diploma

Course for lecturers at teachers' colleges, and the coursework is done partly in Papua New Guinea and partly in the Canberra Advanced College of Education in Australia. It is recognised that if primary school pupils are to attain acceptable standards, great attention has to be paid to the professional development of college lecturers. In 1983 almost half the college lecturers were Papua New Guinean and the other half expatriates; a substantial increase in the number of Papua New Guineans since a few years earlier.

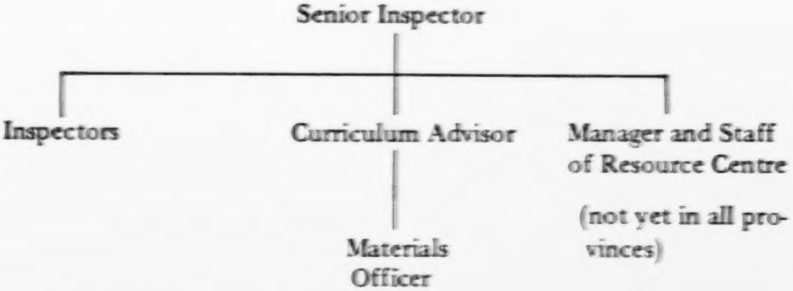
One major problem facing the nation is the low academic standard of the primary teachers colleges. The Government policy is to provide graduates of the lower secondary schools with job opportunities or places in upper secondary and other post-grade X vocational institutions, including nursing, para-agricultural, para-medical and teacher training colleges. With noteworthy exceptions, the applicants for teacher education come from the lower half of the graduating ranks with respect to academic standards. Training colleges therefore are faced with the important task of producing teachers of quality.

One of the major reasons for the low quality of teacher education applicants is the likelihood of remote postings after graduation. Many of the primary schools are in isolated areas where there are no roads, good houses, good stores or other attractions. Other occupations offer far more congenial circumstances. Remote school allowances are small and are reserved for the very remote schools. Young people in high school are very much aware of this because of their career guidance lessons. Very often teacher education is the third choice of school leavers. Colleges would like to attract brighter students but accept the reality of the situation. At any rate the applicants are from the top 12 per cent of their age group in the country. Colleges in the past have mounted recruitment campaigns in high schools, but these have made little difference in the quality of applicants.

The new intake of teachers' college applicants each year does offset attrition during the two-year course and allow for expansion of the primary school teaching force year by year. Approximately 5 per cent of the teaching force resigns each year and has to be replaced, and the teaching force grows by about 2.5 per cent a year.

Every year over 200 teachers (about 2.5 per cent) are able to attend teacher training at the in-service college. A recent innovation has been to build offices on the grounds of the in-service college for the primary inspectorate and primary curriculum developers. This means that curriculum developers, the inspectorate and in-service teacher training lecturers can work together closely. This integrated approach should improve the training of teachers and pupil achievement in schools.

The In-Service college is not the only place where teachers receive in-service training. There is also provincially based in-service training. The provinces have professional teams for primary school education according to the following arrangement:


Senior Inspector
Inspectors
Curriculum Advisor
Manager and Staff of Resource Centre
(not yet in all provinces)
Materials Officer

In addition, every headmaster and every senior teacher is required to conduct in-service training for teachers. The typical school in Papua New Guinea is a six-teacher school with the headmaster responsible for grade III, the senior teacher responsible for grade II, and four teachers responsible for grade I.

The senior teacher normally helps to train two of the teachers, the headmaster helps train two teachers and the senior teacher. There are also regular in-service classes run by either the headmaster or the senior teacher. Inspectors check to make sure such training occurs in each school. In addition to in-school in-service training, there is outside training input by visiting school inspectors or members of the provincial professional teams. The reports of the co-operation of such teams are encouraging.

Every year there is a "National In-Service Week" when the Teaching Service Commissioner grants five days leave of absence for every teacher in the country to participate in an in-service programme. In order for resource personnel to be able to help in all provinces, a month is designated during which all provinces have to arrange their in-service weeks. The national Staff Development Unit originally prepared training material on topics set by the Secretary for Education, but provinces have asked to be able to identify the needs of their teachers and set the topics, so this will be done from 1984 on. These national training courses are usually held in zones of 100 teachers or less. For teachers from schools in remote areas, In-Service Week is a social occasion when they can meet with their colleagues from other schools.

Some provinces also run training sessions for a day or so for selected teachers from up to ten schools brought to a central spot. These sessions may consist of intensive training for teachers weak in certain subjects or of new curricular material. Teachers who attend these courses go back to their schools and share with other staff members what they have gained.

The National Government runs another in-service programme for teachers with supervisory duties. These courses are given in the provinces by the professional teams headed by the Senior Inspectors, and are designed to train headmasters and senior teachers how to supervise junior teachers on their staff.

Assuming more and more importance in in-service training are the teacher resource centres set up in two of the provinces. Officers from other provinces are starting to visit them and it is expected that the centres will be duplicated widely in the next few years. These centres grew out of a need to remedy poor teaching. They are manned by experienced staff who give residential courses of up to a week, evenings as well as days, in areas of teaching identified as weak by the professional teams. The centres also have good reference libraries for teachers and facilities for making teaching aids. The Department of Education has one full-time officer who encourages provinces to develop such centres. Some provinces are interested in more than one centre for maximum access by teachers. The centres are relatively costly to run since teachers must board there during training, but they are proving worth-while.

The inspectorate

This is a national function, although some provinces have expressed an interest in taking it over. The National Government, however, believes it is in the national interest to centralize the function to improve the standards of primary education. The fact that the Inspectorate will be working more closely with curriculum developers and in-service officers augurs well for the future. The structure of the Inspectorate is outlined below.

Assistant Secretary for Standards
|
Superintendent of Community Inspections
|
2 Assistants to Superintendent
|
20 Senior Inspectors (one per province)
|
100 Inspectors

This is a large and costly team. Inspectors are usually based in districts. In some districts the cost of transport is high, especially where roads are poor. In many districts there are no roads at all and inspectors have to fly to sub-district centres. All inspectors except those in big towns have to walk as much as a day or more to some schools and this takes up valuable time.

Table 5 shows that in 1983 there were 10,307 teachers in community schools in Papua New Guinea and 121 inspectors (including Senior Inspectors). This is on the average one inspector for every 85 teachers. It is hoped that the number of inspectors will increase over the next few years to bring the ratio down to one inspector for every 80 teachers.

Although the national average ratio is 1:85, it should be noted that ratios vary widely from 1:65 in the Gulf and 1:66 in Milne Bay to 1:102 in the Western Highlands. The Gulf and Milne Bay provinces have very scattered populations with schools far apart, while the Western Highlands is relatively small in area and high in population with a relatively good network of roads. This has been considered in the allocation of teachers. By and large, inspectors are able to give roughly the same professional support to teachers throughout the country.

The duties of the various members of the Inspectorate team are as follows:

Senior Inspector

1. To be responsible, under the direction and leadership of the Provincial Superintendent of Schools for guiding and assessing the implementation of community school curricula in the district and for facilitating a close working relationship between district community school inspectors, curriculum advisors and teaching staff;

2. To advise the Provincial Superintendent, other provincial teaching staff, Provincial Education Board members and other interested laymen on national curriculum requirements, options for local determination of curriculum, and means of developing appropriate courses and materials;

3. As head of the professional supervisory team, to be responsible, after consultation with the Provincial Superintendent, for developing the professional skills of community school teachers in the district in accordance with national and provincial curriculum priorities;

4. To report to the Provincial Superintendent of Education in the district on the performance of particular schools and teachers;

5. Under the direction of the Provincial Superintendent, to allocate advisory/inspectorial tasks to inspectors and curriculum advisors and to implement approved programmes for advisory visits, inspections, in-service work and assessment;

6. To accept personal responsibility for a portion of the inspectorial task of the city;

7. To be responsible under the guidance of the Provincial Superintendent to the National Superintendent of Community School Inspections for the professional development of subordinate staff and the preparation of an annual report on the performance of each supervisory team member;

8. To consult with the Regional Secondary Inspector in matters of district professional development; and

9. To maintain proper control of national funds in the district as regards travel.

Inspector

1. To maintain and improve the quality of education in community schools within his assigned inspectorate;

2. Under the direction of the Senior Inspector, to assist in planning and implementing agreed provincial programmes of professional development of teachers;

3. To develop the skills of individual headmasters and senior teachers in school management through planning and implementation of in-service training;

4. To advance the professional development of teachers;

5. To report as required to the Senior Inspector on schools and the efficiency of community school teaching staff in his inspectorate;

6. To ensure that both national and provincial curricular goals are attained through effective school implementation;

7. To encourage teachers to promote good school-community relationships;

8. To assist the Senior Inspector in planning advisory visits by curriculum advisors to complement the work of the inspectors; and

9. To represent the Senior Inspector as required in matters relating to provincial and national curricula.

Curriculum Adviser

1. To visit community schools in the province and introduce new curriculum and support materials;

2. Under the direction of the Senior Inspector, to visit selected community schools in the province to advise teachers on the effective implementation of national and provincial requirements for the community school curriculum;

3. To develop appropriate support materials as requested by the Curriculum Unit where such need is identified;

4. To prepare, distribute and evaluate appropriate teaching materials and guides, conduct required in-service workshops, and participate in curriculum and in-service committees as directed; and

5. To assist in the professional development of headmasters and teachers as directed by inspectors and the Senior Inspector.

These professional teams attempt to visit each school three times a year, twice to provide advice and once for the scheduled inspection of teachers. In the first two weeks of the first term the inspectors try to visit each school in the district to help solve any problems encountered as school gets under way for the year. While this study was being conducted, inspectors said that it was very difficult to make their two advisory visits because of the vastness of the province, the remoteness of the schools, difficult terrain, hazardous sea travel, inaccessibility of schools in bad weather, or high cost of transport. This meant that they usually made only the one advisory visit and a single inspection visit. The inspector's life is a busy one. Besides his initial and advisory visits, he is involved in the National In-service Week and other in-service training for teachers in his district, and must often attend an in-service course for inspectors.

In the early part of the year teachers apply for an inspection if they wish to have one. The professional team considers requests and determines a realistic number for the year. All teachers newly graduated from college have to be inspected to gain full registration as teachers. Each inspector must cover an average of six teachers. In addition, schools must be inspected and reports written. In the second half of the year teachers are inspected and full reports written on each. Near the beginning of the fourth term, the inspection team in the province holds a mini-ratings conference to discuss every report. Later in the term all Senior Inspectors meet for a full ratings conference to consider reports on all teachers at each level and sort them into satisfactory, unsatisfactory, or worthy of promotion. This is an exceedingly difficult task.

In Papua New Guinea the education inspectors fulfil a dual role. They give professional support to the teachers in their districts and also act as assessors. Sometimes teachers find that the inspectors have difficulty in reconciling these dual roles, but to date no alternative has arisen.

"Education News"

Each province has its own radio station with programmes in the lingua franca or the local language. Almost every province broadcasts at least once a week a programme called "Education News". The education office staff are responsible for this programme, which is part professional advice and part news to inform teachers of what is going on in education in the province. The programme is greatly appreciated by provincial primary school teachers.

The National Department of Education also broadcasts a similar programme once a week during school hours so that teachers can listen to it together. This programme sometimes features interviews with such people as researchers in education, speakers from seminars on education, or writers of recent articles on some aspects of education. The session also advises teachers on subjects of national importance and reminds them of events in the school calendar. These programmes can be useful in promoting the universalization of primary education among teachers and the many parents who also listen to them.

Community involvement

The extent of community involvement in primary education varies widely in the provinces. Some simply require that parents build the schools and teachers' houses and maintain them, and then leave further community participation up to the teachers. Nearly all provinces have Parents' and Citizens' meetings. Many schools involve parents in school nutrition by asking mothers to come on certain days to cook the children's lunches.

The strongest examples of community involvement seem to come through the Boards of Management. These are made up of at least five members of the community served by the school system, the headmaster and one teacher from the pre-school, community school, primary school or vocational centre, and one or more direct representatives of the agency responsible for education in the community. The Boards of Management are responsible for planning, provision and maintenance of school buildings, teacher housing and ancillary facilities; for enrolment of pupils; for setting and achieving school goals; and for making and enforcing disciplinary rules.

Some provinces, like the Southern Highlands, have a more organized approach to community participation. Since 1980 they have attempted to promote the ideas and innovations discussed at Provincial Education Board and Education Planning and Development Committee meetings. Teachers in both community and high schools, members of governing bodies and education agencies, District Managers and Non-Formal Education Officers in these provinces have all been encouraged to participate in the preparation of the provincial five-year plans. Teachers visited during National In-Service Training Week and participants in a number of workshops have also contributed their ideas. Community members have been encouraged to question the rationale for having a community school, and the value of education for girls and school leavers. Other issues have included the problems of schools and school leavers.

It is important that the community be informed and critical about the education of its children, rather than disinterested and passive due to low self-esteem. Some schools in the Southern Highlands have set aside a short period of time each week, often on parents' work day, for members of the community to ask questions of teachers and other extension agents. This School Community Involvement programme involves a dialogue, between participants on an equal footing. The Boards of Management in this province set school goals, build and maintain school buildings, make staff requests to the Provincial Education Board, discipline students, and ensure community support and resources for teaching subjects like traditional handicrafts that are relevant to community needs. Since some districts in the Southern Highlands have the highest drop-out rates in the country, the meetings described above could be used more to address this problem.

In the same province, communities are expected to provide materials for and construct necessary school buildings and teacher housing, and to contribute towards their maintenance and security. In general, teacher housing is inferior to that of any other public servants of comparable qualification. The Southern Highlands Provincial Education Board has recognized this fact and advised Local Government Councils, District Management Teams and education agencies that provision of adequate housing for community school teachers should have funding priority over other classroom, library or high school requests.

Attempts have been made to identify a suitable low cost design that could be purchased in kit form. A number of such "kit houses" will then be inspected and evaluated for duplication.

Community schools

The purpose of community schools is to educate children to live in their communities after they have left school, and to prepare some of them for further education in secondary schools. At one time the main aim of primary school was to prepare children for secondary education and jobs in the towns, but such futures are actually possible for only a few. Education must therefore help children to live in their communities. The fact is that most people in Papua New Guinea live in rural areas, and for many of them there is a better future in such activities as small-scale development of agriculture projects and village handicrafts than in large-scale development in the towns.

Papua New Guinea is not a rich nation and it cannot afford the luxury of buying large quantities of imported textbooks to use in its schools. Teachers will have to learn to use learning materials they can improvise or obtain from the local community. Lessons can often be given just as well using local materials.

A community school is one in which teaching and learning is related to the community and its activities. The curriculum must begin with the activities of the local community and lead to those of the national community, to help broaden the outlook of the students. Teachers should structure their lessons around local activities and involve members of the community in the life of the school.

Some parents will ask why children should go to school if this is not going to help them get jobs. The answer is that a child who can count, read and write has a set of skills that will help him to be a better citizen, build up his community, and in turn make the nation strong. This strength will lead to wider employment opportunities for everyone.

A school that is related to community needs gives parents the chance to become involved with what their children learn at school. This too can benefit the community.

The Five-Year Education Plan pointed out the need for a new direction in primary education. This does not mean that the entire content of the syllabus must change, but that the attitudes of teachers and the ways schools function need to change. We do not know what knowledge will be most useful ten years or even five years from now, so it is not possible to try to teach now all the knowledge the child will need as an adult. Instead we must try to develop people who enjoy learning and who will be able to learn later in life whatever they need to know. It is not the subject matter that makes one kind of education more valuable than another, but the attitude toward learning that the child is taught. Communities and cultures change. Customs are discarded and communities come in contact with new ideas, new ways of doing things and other cultures. The school, then, needs to be a place where children learn to think, to reason, to discuss and to make responsible decisions.

The community school curriculum

Life in Papua New Guinea has changed considerably since the last syllabus was produced in 1967. To adapt to these changes and to government aims and policies new syllabi have been produced and changes have been made in others.

The Community School curriculum includes the following subjects: community life, English, mathematics, science, health, physical education and expressive arts. These are divided into community-based subjects and nationally prescribed subjects.

Community-based subjects. These subjects include community life, expressive arts, health and physical education. Provincial Governments may, however, choose to develop their own syllabi or vary time allocations for these subjects. They may wish to adapt them to suit the needs of their own communities.

Nationally prescribed subjects. The curriculum for English, mathematics and science is prescribed by the national Ministry of Education. It must be followed by all community schools so that uniform standards can be maintained in these subjects. Teaching examples will of course, still be taken from the local community.

To use this community school syllabus successfully, school personnel must develop a programme that is closely tied to the life of the community served by the school. Community activities must be part of school life and the school must be part of community life. Some community activities will relate to more than one subject and some subjects are more relevant than others to the local community's activities.

The school timetable includes a section called Blocktime, which is to be used at the discretion of the teacher for remedial work in national subjects or extension activities related to community-based subjects.

Time for outdoor assemblies may be used for saluting the flag, singing national songs, prayer and general announcements. In the lower grades, extra time is given for indoor assembly. This time is to be used for greetings, morning talk, weather and news reporting and health inspections.

Children are to be taught reading and writing in English. There are many arguments for teaching first in the children's mother tongue, but in Papua New Guinea it is impossible to do this everywhere. It has therefore been decided that English will be the language of instruction, although teachers may occasionally use other languages to help explain subjects in grades I and II.

Subjects like community life, mathematics and science help pupils to ask questions and develop ways of thinking. Activities in these subjects are designed to make children aware of the world they live in to understand how things work and how to manipulate them. They introduce ideas such as 'profit' and 'changing customs', use the natural curiosity of children to encourage them to ask questions, and help the children develop skills that will be useful to them no matter where they live or what kind of work they will do once they have left school. Mathematics and English try to teach basic skills and reasoning, and to help children apply this knowledge in practical situations. Health and physical education help children take care of their bodies and develop skills in sports. Expressive arts allows children to express what they are thinking and feeling in different ways through new skills. This subject includes music, singing, dancing, acting, drawing, painting and writing stories.

Christian religious education, related to life in Papua New Guinea, helps children develop a foundation of beliefs on which to build an understanding of life and knowledge of right and wrong. If a common syllabus is agreed upon by the Christian churches and the Secretary for Education, this will be followed in all schools during the time allocation for Christian religious education. At this time each of the five Christian churches in the national system follows a "core syllabus" developed in 1974 for this subject in their schools. In government schools the Agreed Syllabus for Christian Education in Primary Schools (1970) may be used for mixed classes of children from different churches. In the event that an accredited teacher from a particular denomination wants to instruct children of his own denomination in this subject, the headmaster must be consulted on the best time during the week to arrange this.

It is up to teachers to use the syllabus for each of these subjects as a base on which to build and adapt. They should integrate the subjects with each other and with the activities of the community.

Subject timetable. The day-to-day organization of the school and the planning of lessons must fit into the rhythm of the community. The school cannot expect the community to change to fit in with what it wants to do. Much learning will have to be informal and much of the school timetable will have to be flexible to adapt to the activities of the community at different times of the year. The following are the time allocations provided by the Ministry of Education for nationally prescribed and community-based subjects. Provincial governments may submit plans to vary the syllabus or time allocations for community-based subjects to the Ministry.

Prescribed subjects. These are the minimum number of minutes per subject per week prescribed for all schools.

	Gr.I	Gr.II	Gr.III	Gr.IV	Gr.V	Gr.VI
English	480	585	610	580	550	520
Mathematics	210	210	210	210	210	210
Science	30	30	40	40	60	60

Community-based subjects. These may be varied by the provincial government with the approval of the Ministry for Education.

	Gr.I	Gr.II	Gr.III	Gr.IV	Gr.V	Gr.VI
Community life	150	150	210	240	270	300
Expressive arts	180	180	180	210	210	210
Health	60	60	60	60	60	60
Physical education skills	100	100	100	90	90	90
Games	-	-	-	60	60	60
Assembly	150	150	75	60	60	60
*Christian religious education	60	60	60	60	60	60
Block	155	125	105	40	20	20
Total time	1575	1650	1650	1650	1650	1650

* In church-run Community Schools 30 minutes of Christian Religious Education per day is permitted, amounting to 150 rather than 60 minutes per week. This extra 90 minutes per week can be taken at any point in the day as long as all other subjects, including Block-time, receive their full time allocations.

School broadcasts are included in the suggested time allocations for each subject. For example, radio broadcasts in subjects such as English and health may be taken as part of the time allocation for that subject.

Suggestions for curriculum planning. The syllabus for each subject contains a list of topics to be covered in each grade, and sometimes suggestions for methods and materials to use in teaching that subject, but does not specify the order of introduction of all topics or how much time is needed to teach them (i.e. the pace of teaching). The pace at which the children can work will depend on the difficulty of the topic.

Suggested time schedule for teaching of English

Spoken English

	Gr.I	Gr.II	Gr.III	Gr.IV	Gr.V	Gr.VI
Listening	75	45	45	30	30	20
Radio broadcasts	45	45	45	60	45	60
Talking	100	120	100	100	75	75
Oral expression	45	45	60	60	60	60
Pre-reading & pre-writing	140					
Reading		120	150	150	150	130
Written English						
Written sentences		75	75	75	100	100
Written composition		30	30	30	30	30
Spelling/dictation	75	45	45	45	30	30
Handwriting		60	60	30	30	15
Total:	480	585	610	580	550	520

Teachers are members of a team, and should share the planning of programming among themselves and with headmaster, inspectors and curriculum advisors. In planning the year's work, teachers should find out what the children have mastered of the previous grades syllabus. Revision of those topics can then be incorporated in the year's programme. In English and mathematics, new topics should be introduced in the order suggested in the syllabus. In subjects like expressive arts and community life, work should be planned to fit in with local activities. The yearly curriculum plan will have to be adjusted if teachers find that the students need more time to learn some things or learn more quickly than expected.

Flexibility in teaching and planning is necessary if teachers are to achieve the aims of the syllabus in each grade. In community life and expressive arts teachers may have to change the timetable to suit village activities or change the 'teacher' by inviting craftsmen or other village person to teach the class. In science and health, local materials and examples may be used to replace prescribed teaching aids. In mathematics and English the pace of teaching may have to be changed to suit the needs of the class or individual pupils. Teachers may decide to teach the class together or in small groups, or to give extra help to individual children.

In planning daily lessons from the yearly programme, teachers will need to think of ways for children to find out things for themselves and co-operate with each other. They should encourage children to check answers for themselves, determine whether children have understood what they have been taught, and find ways to relate the lessons in the classroom to real situations at home or in the community.

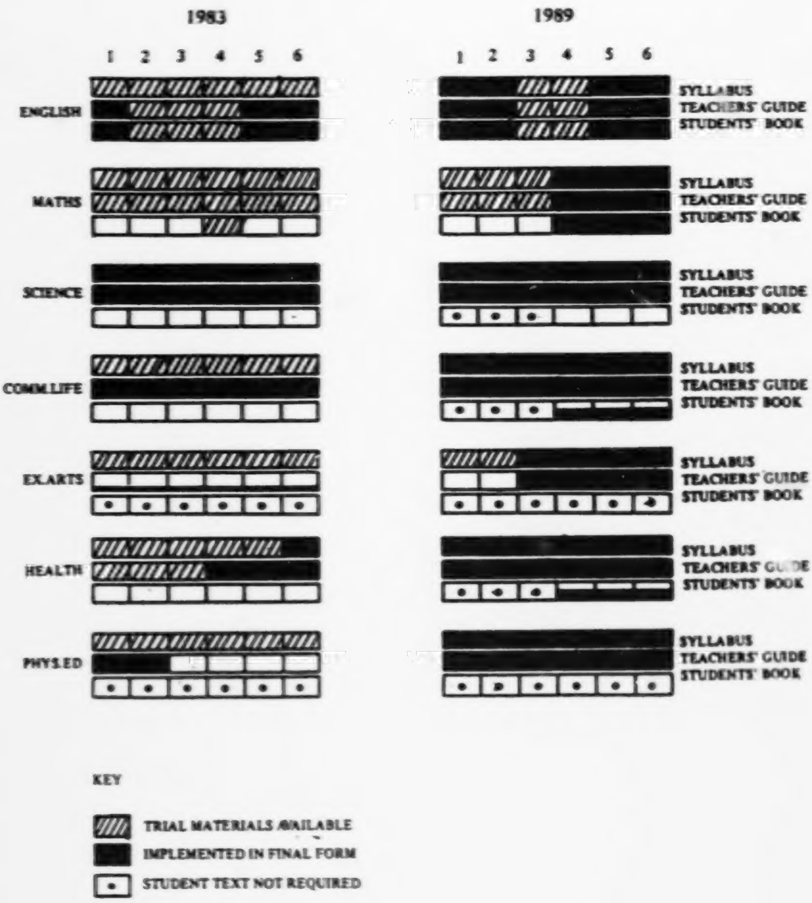
Textbooks and instructional materials

In 1975, just before Independence, a Curriculum Unit was set up to write and produce relevant school materials for Papua New Guinea. The Unit currently employs 13 expatriate writers and 10 national writers and associates. Each writer deals with a particular subject area and co-ordinates a committee of practising teachers who help decide the format and content of books and courses. Final approval comes from the Secretary for Education. The primary syllabus was established in 1977. The following diagram shows what textbooks and teachers' guides are available for each of the subjects in the primary school curriculum.

Pupils have instructional materials and reading books in only one subject, English. These materials are distributed free to all schools and remain the property of the school, but they are in limited supply because of restricted funding. Reading books are normally shared between two or three pupils. Only four or five different reading books are available at each grade level. No student materials are available for any other primary subject area.

In the last couple of years a massive project has begun with the assistance of the World Bank to provide technical staff and

Development of primary materials



equipment to upgrade the production of primary textbooks in maths, community life and health. By 1987 a variety will be available in several subject areas.

The Department of Education has an offset printshop with a staff of 35 to produce all syllabi and teachers' guides in print runs of up to 6000 copies. Textbooks are printed in much larger quantities by the government printer or by commercial printes both inside and outside Papua New Guinea.

Because of the rugged nature of the country and the very limited network of roads, school materials have always been air-freighted from Port Moresby to outlying areas. However, as the production of student material has expanded, it has been necessary to ship textbooks to provincial ports. Each of the 20 provinces has a Materials Officer who is responsible for collecting and storing educational materials and organising their distribution to schools throughout the province. School supplies like exercise books and chalk are distributed through government stores and purchased by provincial governments and schools.

Mass media and educational technology

The Australian Broadcasting Commission initiated school broadcasts for Papua New Guinea during the 1960s and early 1970s. This responsibility was transferred to the National Broadcasting Commission at Independence and formal school broadcasts are now produced by the Curriculum Unit of the Education Department. The Department has increased its technical staff and hopes to update and re-air many of the older school broadcasts.

There are 17 programmes broadcast regularly for primary schools and one for secondary. The School Broadcast Timetable for 1983 is printed at the end of this section. School broadcasts are a very cost-effective medium and particularly suitable to the highly oral nature of Papua New Guinean culture. Regular workshops are held in teachers colleges to train teachers in the use of school broadcasts, and teachers' notes are provided to accompany each programme.

The Department of Education is concentrating at this stage on developing student books, radio broadcasts and posters, and is not actively encouraging schools to purchase more sophisticated audio-visual technology. In fact, it is hoped that the spread of television will be delayed for a few more years until these basic materials are well established. Teachers' colleges use slide projectors, 16mm films and video in their training, but it will be some time before most primary schools have funds, electrical power and suitable storage facilities to make use of such machinery or to purchase sufficient software.

School broadcast timetable 1983

	MONDAY	*TUESDAY*	*WEDNESDAY*	*THURSDAY*	*FRIDAY*
8:45	Christian Education – 6	Let's Use English – 5	Let's Use English – 5	Let's Use English – 5	Dr. Kanini Health Education – 5
9:00	Stories from the bible – 5	Let's Speak English – 4	Let's Speak English – 4	Let's Speak English – 4	Let's Speak English – 4
9:15		Radio Magazine – 3	Radio Magazine – 3	Radio Magazine – 3	
9:30	Health Education – 4	Listening Time – 2	Listening Time – 2	Listening Time – 2	Papa Mai – 5 & 6
9:45	Science – 5	Radio Time – 1	Radio Time – 1	Radio Time – 1	
10:00			Education News		Current Events headlines
11:00	Science – 6	LET'S USE ENGLISH/ENG RAD MAGAZINE-6	LET'S USE ENGLISH/ENG RAD MAGAZINE-6	LET'S USE ENGLISH/ENG RAD MAGAZINE-6	Current Events – 5 & 6
11:30	Community Life – 4	Community Life – 5	Community Life – 6	Serial: Kipa the Dreamer – 6	
1.10		1.10 Literature (Grds 9 & 10)			

TERM 1 BROADCASTS : FEB 7 – MARCH 31
TERM 2 BROADCASTS : APRIL 25 – JULY 1
TERM 3 BROADCASTS : JULY 18 – SEPT 9
TERM 4 BROADCASTS : OCT. 3 – DEC 16

Division of Educational Services
National Broadcasting Commission
P.O. Box 1359
BOROKO

School Broadcast Liaison Officer
Curriculum Unit
Department of Education
Private Mail Bag
BOROKO

Automatic promotion

The community school programme in Papua New Guinea has a policy of automatic promotion. This means that children are not permitted to repeat grades. Boards of Education do allow children to repeat in special circumstances. If they have been sick frequently and have missed too much work, the teacher is allowed to put their cases to the Board. In practice, however, this very seldom happens and very few such cases are even discussed.

While this practice may be psychologically beneficial in that children are not made to feel they have failed and are able to stay with their own age groups throughout their school lives, it does create problems. Research is required in this area to find out the effects of automatic progression. How many children or what percentage of grade enrolments proceed to the next grade without sufficient knowledge to be able to cope with the work of the next grade? How much teacher frustration is caused by too wide a range of knowledge in the class? How can a teacher cope if there is simply too much remedial work to be done? The problem becomes more and more serious as students move into the higher grades. It might be advisable for the provinces to change the national policy they have inherited.

Overview of research

Research in primary education in Papua New Guinea from 1979 to 1983 dealt with four major issues: (1) cultural context, (2) cognition, (3) classroom materials and (4) the role of the teacher. The majority of research focused on cognitive development related to traditional culture. An example of such a study was the 1982 "Indigenous Mathematics Project" co-ordinated by Lacy and Souviney. This project assembled data from over 100 researchers on acquisition of numeracy relating to indigenous counting systems. Piaget's stages of cognitive development formed the theoretical base. Data from over 20 other research reports on school ethnographies in five representative sites, including the evaluation of trial classroom materials, gave direction to the development of primary mathematics textbooks under the Second World Bank Education Loan.

National documents that have influenced the direction of research include *the Five-Year Education Plan* (1977), the *National Education Strategy* (1979), *Policy Hearings for Education* (1977 and

1979) and *the Standards Report* (1982). Special publications relating to primary-level education include *The Right to Learn* (1981) on nonformal alternatives, the *Ministerial Brief on Education* 1982), and the 1979 special edition of *the PNG Journal of Education* entitled "The Community School." Also noteworthy are "The Education of the PNG Child" published by the University of Papua New Guinea and the Education Research Unit reports, "The Role of the Community School Inspector" by Apelis and "The Community Schools Survey" by Cayago.

Geographic and cultural contrasts that influence schooling have been documented by Carrier on Ponam Island, Logan in Siassi, the Burkins in the Southern Highlands village of Muli, Cheetham in the Huli area, and Zeleneitz in Kelenge. Winters, Kemelfield, Delpit, Lancy, Souviney, Weeks and Vulliamy have also contributed to the growing literature on the interaction of school and culture. Randall and Maddock have related student explanations of natural phenomenon to stages of religious awareness and the science curriculum.

Beattie's research on the subject of expressive arts was followed by that of Buck and Mount. Burse and Monia have looked at the teaching of agriculture in the primary school, Hecht at religious instruction, Roberts and Kada at mathematics, Wilson at science, Jones and Newton at physical education, and Watson at community life topics.

Varmari has investigated the community school syllabus and the inspectors. Smith, Cares and Power have completed research on teachers' perception of primary schools. Surveys of teaching materials and the needs of community school teachers have been made by Anderson and Aarons. Professor Downing from the University of British Columbia has studied reading needs in community schools. Moore has looked at classroom interaction in an urban International Primary School and has begun a three-year research project on English instruction in grades I and II.

The national focus on decentralisation has been studied by Grieve and, more thoroughly, Bray. Urbanization and schooling have received some attention from Guthrie. Solon has reported on the medium of instruction in community schools. Delpit and Giggs have concentrated on the feasibility of establishing pre-school vernacular schools in two provinces.

Enrolment ratios, causes of attrition and equity levels between provinces have been investigated by Bray, Sheret, Weeks, Kemelfield and Guthrie (in the North Solomons); by Gould, Dixey and other visiting Unesco consultants; and by the Planning Services Division of the National Department of Education.

Physical fitness surveys have been carried out by Drs. Dietrich and Olsen. Surveys on nutrition, availability of school lunches, and physical handicaps have been co-ordinated by the Planning Services Division.

Special groups of primary students

There are important distinctions between urban and rural primary school conditions in Papua New Guinea, but to date statistics for these areas are not recorded separately. Provinces are being encouraged to plan by districts and will be taking this distinction into account.

Until 1983 there was no financial assistance for physically and mentally handicapped children in the country since funds for regular primary education were already scarce. A study is now being made of the size of this special population. Church and voluntary agencies have shown interest in this group of children over the years and have started a few schools. Their efforts are beginning to be recognized by the present Government through grants to help them in their work. Government policy is not to open schools of this nature within the national education system, but to continue giving financial assistance to the voluntary agencies working in this area.

Chapter Three

ANALYSIS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION STATISTICS, 1983

At the end of this chapter is a series of 21 tables of basic primary education statistics for 1983 in Papua New Guinea. School statistics are prepared monthly and forwarded by headmasters to the provincial education offices, where they are collated. In most provinces since 1983 statistics have been compiled on a district basis. In the future this will be invaluable in planning the development of primary education in the country. The provinces do not report any difficulties in preparing statistical data at the schools, but getting the data to the provincial centre for collation is a major problem. Provinces are building up a good supply of baseline data against which they can compare future data.

Grade I enrolment

Table 1 shows that the average primary enrolment in the national education system is 84.4 per cent. When the 6 per cent enrolment in schools outside the system from Table 6 is added, the total enrolment is 90.4 per cent, as shown in Table 1B. This is an exaggerated figure, as explained earlier, since there are many over-aged children enrolled in grade I and there is no way to gain an accurate picture of the percentage of seven year olds enrolled. Data collection will need to be refined in the future.

Provincial enrolment statistics vary widely. There is no room for complacency in the Southern Highlands, Madang and other provinces. Over-age enrolment is more likely in the Highlands, where education has only recently become available , so the low percentage of enrolment there would drop even more if over-age children were not counted in the statistics.

Statistics show that some districts are contributing very poorly to the educational development of the provinces. The sample table

Province	*Provincial Average*	*District within Province*	*District Average*
Western Highlands	89.4	Jimi	56.9
Enga	81.9	Kandep	46.1
Simbu	100.0	Gumine	69.0
Milne Bay	93.6	Rabaraba	50.1
		Losuia	59.6
Eastern Highlands	88.5	Okapa	56.0
Morobe	78.8	Menyamya	42.3
Southern Highlands	64.9	Tari	44.1
		Koroba	48.7
Western	88.0	Lake Murray	52.9

below shows the difference between average provincial enrolments and enrolments in selected districts of seven provinces.

The provinces need to take note of such figures and plan new schools for their most disadvantaged districts. Sometimes provinces have planned to open schools in these districts but have found few teachers willing to accept the postings. Also, some of these districts are so sparsely populated that they can support only a one-or two-teacher school, but multiple-class teaching is not favoured by many teachers. Provinces are more inclined to open schools where they have been invited to do so and such requests rarely come from the remote, sparsely populated areas. Families in such areas who are interested in education send their children to live with relatives where there are already schools, and the enrolment of those schools is consequently inflated.

The highest enrolment figures for the provinces are in the districts where the provincial capitals are located as shown on the next page. This is largely because the first schools were established in the provincial capitals, and teachers are happiest to serve there, because many children migrate there to attend school, and because parents there are more inclined to see the value of education.

Province	Provincial Average	District with Provincial Capital	District Average
Western	88.0	Daru	111.7
Southern Highlands	64.9	Mendi	87.0
Western Highlands	89.4	Mt. Hagen	111.1

There are no statistics available for urban versus rural enrolment. Even though all towns in Papua New Guinea are quite small, Provincial Planning Committees, Education Boards, and governments should seriously consider the statistics in the above tables in order to plan for a broader distribution of schools.

Table 1A shows the exceedingly low enrolment of girls in many districts, and the small table below focuses on the problem in seven provinces.

Province	Provincial average	District	Age-group population of girls in that district
Madang	65.9	Ramu	34.0
		Saidon	36.1
Western Highlands	89.4	Jimi	45.8
Enga	81.9	Wabag	34.6
		Kandep	34.7
Milne Bay	95.0	Rabaraba	44.3
Eastern Highlands	88.5	Okapa	45.5
Gulf	80.2	Kaintiba	15.9
Morobe	78.8	Manyamya	19.9

The various Boards are well aware of this problem and are grappling with it. They need to find out why parents are not sending their girls to school. Boys in Papua New Guinea slightly outnumber girls, but this should not be reflected in the *percentages* of girls and boys enrolled. If 65 per cent of the boys from the Menyamya district are enrolled in grade 1, for example, then we could also expect 65 per cent of the girls to attend, rather than only 19.9 per cent. Over 90 per cent of the seven-year-olds in the whole nation could be in school at no extra cost if the enrolment of girls matched that of boys. The classroom are there, the teachers are there, and the children could also be there but are not.

Every possible method should be used to persuade parents of the value of primary education. Teachers should be heavily involved in this aspect of community relations. Very often teachers are content to have fewer pupils in their classes. Often they cannot be bothered to encourage parents to send their children. Enthusiastic teachers can make parents and children enthusiastic in getting other children to attend.

Apart from the low enrolment of girls in some districts and low overall enrolment in others, in general the 1983 grade I enrolment was reasonably satisfactory, but there is still room for improvement.

Enrolment in grades I through VI

If the enrolment figures from Tables 1B and 2B are compared, as follows, it can be seen that the overall enrolment for grades I-VI was not as satisfactory as that for grade I.

Central Province and five highland provinces, Southern Highlands, Enga, Western Highlands, Simbu and Eastern Highlands, all show up badly here. The North Solomons figure of 120.5 per cent is inflated by the large number of nine-year-olds in grade I. In the highlands there are some explanations for the low enrolment statistics. The numbers in grade I five and six years ago were much smaller than now, so that fewer pupils moved up through the grades. The national government policy of equity has greatly improved the grade I intake but the improvement still take some years to work through the system. Also, the highland provinces have been introduced to education much more recently and are still learning to see the value of a full six-year primary education.

Tables 2, 2A, 2B and 2C show the same trends as already noted for grade I enrolment. There are very poor enrolments in some advantaged districts. The low enrolment of girls needs much attention. Provinces must start to examine such data very carefully and seek solutions to the problems. The value of a primary education for all citizens of a country is universally recognized and must be taken seriously.

Province	*Grade I age-group population enrolled*	*Grades I-VI age-group population enrolled*	*Difference*
Western	88.7	70.4	18.3
Gulf	82.8	69.6	13.2
Nat'l. Capital District	88.1	81.9	6.2
Central	110.3	81.1	29.2
Milne Bay	93.9	70.0	23.9
Oro	83.7	66.6	17.1
Southern Highlands	65.2	50.2	15.0
Enga	83.5	53.7	29.8
Western Highlands	91.5	54.8	36.7
Simbu	101.5	58.8	42.7
Eastern Highlands	90.3	55.9	34.4
Morobe	109.1	71.4	37.7
Madang	67.6	57.3	10.3
East Sepik	88.9	67.7	21.2
West Sepik	73.1	69.7	3.4
Manus	116.7	110.2	6.5
New Ireland	91.8	83.4	8.4
East New Britain	100.0	81.4	18.6
West New Britain	91.2	81.3	9.9
North Solomons	120.5	82.4	38.1
P.N.G.	91.9	70.9	21.0

Reducing primary school fees is a possible incentive to encourage families to enrol more children, but not a very strong one since the fees are nominal. Fees in the provinces range from K2.00 to K20.00. Two provinces charge no fees at all, others provide half the school fees, and others charge a special family rate when two or more children from the same family attend school. Sometimes provinces reduce or even waive fees for children in economically disadvantaged areas. For families whose children attend community schools, fees are not really a problem because all members of the extended family contribute to the cost of the children's schooling.

One province is considering lowering the fees for girls in order to induce parents to send more daughters to school. Another province is addressing this problem by trying to hire two women teachers per school. Although the presence of women teachers would reassure the parents of many girl pupils, this would be difficult to implement nationally since some districts have very few women teachers and some schools are small, remote and in very sparsely populated areas. The National Capital District, on the other hand, has a ratio of 1½ female teachers for every male teacher because the women are the wives of men working in the Capital.

Morobe Province supplies free school materials to encourage children to attend. All textbooks in Papua New Guinea are supplied free to school children, but supply is often a problem. Morobe Province has proposed the following procedures to ensure an adequate supply of school materials for all pupils. Each community school must submit an estimate of materials needed for the following year by October 31st. The Materials Officer will then check this list against the number of estimated students by grade which is supplied by the Senior Professional Assistant, place the order for the province, check any delays in delivery from Port Moresby, and then facilitate distribution to each school within a fortnight of the beginning of the term. The Materials Officer will supply materials during the school year according to a predetermined schedule.

Another interesting incentive has been introduced by Bougainville Copper Limited. This company re-imburses all school fees paid by its employees. This has boosted the morale of the employees so that the children of almost every employee now attend school.

Retention rates

Tables 3 and 3A must be examined next to Tables 2 through 2C. Only 67.5 per cent of the students who were in grade I in 1978 were still in primary school in 1983. If all the children who started school in 1978 were still in school in 1983, another 3.5 per cent would have to be added to the 1983 grade I-VI enrolment.

Opening new schools and getting more seven-year-old children into grade I is not Papua New Guinea's main problem. Access is less of a problem than retention. Overall, 32.5 per cent of the school enrolment is lost over the years. The five highland provinces lose almost half the children who enrol. Provinces need to mount a major compaign to educate everyone about the value of a full primary education.

The study by Bray and Boze of the drop-out problem showed that teachers often regarded dropping out as a solution rather than a problem. A general study conducted by the Department of Education in 1980 showed that children who dropped out were happy to do so because they were bored in school. The teaching was dull and uninteresting. These two studies show that a major reason for children dropping out of school is poor teaching and a lack of appreciation by teachers of the value of primary education. Another reason is that they often have to walk long distances to school over difficult terrain. Another was parental apathy. Sometimes children have to go without breakfast and lunch because they go to school. Some parents are unhappy about paying school fees when their children are unlikely to go to high school and to get a job later to help them so they withdraw their children from school. This is the biggest problem facing Papua New Guinea in primary education and it must be faced honestly.

The Southern Highlands Province is setting up District Education Offices to monitor education in each district. Among the main tasks of the officers in charge should be parent education and teacher training. Some provinces are discussing appointing a member of the Board of Management to trace children who drop out and try and get them back. Others talk of introducing legislation to make all children who enrol in grade I continue to the end of grade VI, or radio campaigns extolling the virtues of a full primary education. Little has been done, however. Some posters encouraging school attendance have been produced, but nobody knows if they are at all effective.

Boards of Management could play an important role in retention of pupils. West New Britain is planning courses to help Board members understand their duties and this role could be included. The provinces must be prepared to spend money on this. Even if they opened no new schools at all for a year or two and limited access while concentrating retention, it would be well worthwhile.

Surprisingly, Table 3A shows that more girls are retained in school than boys, though only marginally. Again, retention rates for girls are lower in a few provinces and this brings the average down.

Morobe Province has planned a number of strategies to reduce drop-outs in community schools. The problem will be discussed as part of the provincial parent education programme to increase participation in community schools. This programme will use radio and news sheets written in Pidgin. Another measure to combat drop-outs will be the enforcement of good record-keeping on attendance. Teachers will be alerted to potential drop-outs from their patterns of attendance, attempt to find out from parents or other students why some students are staying away and try to do something about them. The headmasters of all community schools will also take a more active role in monitoring drop-outs and devising strategies to reduce the problem. In attendance returns they will report on the incidence of drop-outs by grade and what is being done about it. Schools that have a particularly serious drop-out record according to attendance returns will then be investigated by the Senior Professional Assistant. This Assistant will forward a circular to all teachers and headmasters about the drop-out problem and their role in fighting it.

The assistance of school inspectors will also be sought in reducing the drop-out problem. In their advisory visits, they will discuss the problem and suggest solutions. Their overall assessments of teachers and headmasters will include attendance records and attempts to keep children in school.

Boards of Management will be reminded by letter in Pidgin of their obligations to encourage parents in the area to send their children to school through grade VI.

Attendance certificates will be introduced for all community school students in the province. A certificate with "gold" letters will be given to all students with 95 per cent attendance, and one with "silver" letters will be given to students with attendance between 90 per cent and 95 per cent. Each community school will present an attendance shield to the grade with the highest enrolment each month or fortnight. The cost of attendance certificates will be K500 per year or K2500 over the planned period, while the cost of class shields will be met by the school.

Transfer rates from primary to high school

Approximately one-third of all grade VI pupils in 1982 were able to enter grade VII in 1983 in provincial high schools. This has been fairly constant for some years and it is not likely to change. National Government policy is to expand high school places only minimally. Provincial governments would like to build more high schools but lack funds to do so. Even the educationally disadvantaged provinces have to provide half the cost of building high schools, with the other half coming from the National Government. If high school places increase only marginally and more and more children enter grade VI, the transfer rate will slowly decrease.

Selection criteria are also causing some concern. At one extreme, selection is made purely on academic merit. This usually means that the town area schools get a very high percentage of pupils in grade VII and more remote schools get none at all. At the other extreme is the full quota system in which every grade VI class promotes the same percentage of pupils to grade VII. This often results in children going to high school when they cannot cope with the studies at that level. Most provinces are opting for criteria combining both merit and quotas.

There is a lower transfer rate for girls than for boys, though the gap is closing quickly. However, because of the smaller number of girls in grade VI, the ratio of boys to girls transferring into high schools is 2:1. It will be many many years before it reaches 1:1.

Teaching staff

The ratio of male to female teachers is 2.5:1. This will probably not change for a long time. There are many empty beds in ladies' dormitories in teachers colleges. Many more girls from grade X could be accepted into these colleges if they could be encouraged to apply. The annual increase in teaching staff is about 250. A lower staff attrition rate would increase this annual growth rate, but it is not likely that this will happen.

Teacher-pupil ratios

The national teacher-pupil ratio has been constant for years. The only way to increase it is to increase the retention rate in schools. The national target is 1:35 but it will be some time before that can be achieved.

Provincial expenditures on education

In 1983 reasonably reliable figures for provincial budgets were obtained for the first time. Table 8B shows that the provinces spend 21.9 per cent of their total budgets on primary education. With an odd exception this does not vary much among the provinces. Overall, they spend 32.3 per cent of their budgets on education, so that, two-thirds of the education budget is spent on primary school education. Teacher salaries are relatively high and account for 90 per cent of the budget for primary school education. This leaves little money for other aspects of primary education.

The unit cost for education in Papua New Guinea is extremely high. The provincial component of the cost is an average of K144.60 (K1 = US$1.16), equivalent to US$168.00. The national component amounts to approximately K15 per pupil. This brings the total unit cost for education to K160, or US$ 185.00. This is very high indeed. The only way to lower this unit cost would be to lower teacher salaries, but this would be almost impossible unless all salaries in the country were lowered simultaneously.

Special schools

Table 9 lists the number of one-or two-teacher schools in Papua New Guinea. Almost all the one-teacher schools are new schools that started with one class of grade I pupils. A good number of the two-teacher schools have multiple classes and these added to the number of other multiple classes bring the total number to about 450. As teachers transfer in and out of these schools, more and more of them need training in the special techniques of multiple-class teaching. Since the National Government is responsible for training, this is an area it should examine to ensure a rise in primary education standards.

Table 1. Grade I enrolment, 1983

Province	*Gr. I Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	2,185	2,484	88.0	96.0
Gulf	1,595	1,989	80.2	85.0
Nat'l. Capital	2,856	3,599	79.4	85.0
Central	3,779	3,595	105.1	96.0
Milne Bay	3,483	3,719	93.7	95.0
Oro	2,091	2,504	83.5	90.0
South. Highlands	5,140	7,917	64.9	70.0
Enga	3,871	4,727	81.9	85.0
West. Highlands	6,647	7,436	89.4	90.0
Simbu	4,268	4,234	101.0	100.0
East. Highlands	7,003	7,915	88.5	90.0
Morobe	7,511	9,526	78.8	82.0
Madang	4,678	7,100	65.9	70.0
East Sepik	5,911	6,735	87.8	95.0
West Sepik	2,443	3,340	73.1	80.0
Manus	884	814	108.6	100.0
New Ireland	1,779	2,013	88.4	95.0
East New Britain	3,729	3,840	93.5	100.0
West New Britain	2,611	2,895	90.2	95.0
North Solomons	3,882	4,116	94.3	96.0
TOTAL	76,346	90,498	84.4	90.0

Table 1A. Grade I enrolment by sex, 1983

Province	*BOYS*				*GIRLS*			
	Gr. I Enrolment	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*	*Gr. I Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	1,193	1,313	90.7	100.0	992	1,171	84.7	90.0
Gulf	906	1,011	89.6	90.0	689	978	70.4	80.0
Nat'l.Capital	1,489	1,918	77.6	85.0	1,367	1,681	81.3	85.0
Central	2,040	1,871	109.0	100.0	1,739	1,724	100.0	92.0
Milne Bay	1,890	1,902	99.4	100.0	1,593	1,817	87.7	95.0
Oro	1,161	1,279	91.2	95.0	930	1,225	75.9	85.0
South.Highlands	2,960	4,123	71.8	78.0	2,180	3,794	57.5	65.0
Enga	2,324	2,427	95.8	96.0	1,547	2,300	67.3	80.0
West.Highlands	3,689	3,876	95.0	98.0	2,958	3,560	83.1	85.0
Simbu	2,443	2,235	109.0	100.0	1,825	1,999	91.0	95.0
East.Highlands	3,812	4,122	92.5	92.0	3,191	3,793	84.1	88.0
Morobe	4,370	4,918	88.9	90.0	3,141	4,608	68.2	75.0
Madang	2,776	3,735	74.3	80.0	1,902	3,365	56.5	65.0
East Sepik	3,403	3,650	93.2	95.0	2,508	3,085	81.3	85.0
West Sepik	1,506	1,716	87.8	95.0	937	1,624	58.1	65.0
Manus	487	432	112.7	100.0	397	382	103.9	100.0
New Ireland	986	1,117	88.3	95.0	793	896	878.5	95.0
East New Britain	1,956	1,991	98.2	100.0	1,773	1,849	95.9	100.0
West New Britain	1,403	1,544	90.9	95.0	1,208	1,351	89.4	95.0
North Solomons	1,952	2,135	91.4	95.0	1,930	1,981	97.9	100.0
TOTAL	42,746	47,315	90.3	95.0	33,600	43,183	77.8	82.0

Table 1B. Total enrolment of 7-year-olds, 1983

Province	*7-year-olds enrolled*	*7-year-old population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	2,203	2,484	88.7	96.0
Gulf	1,646	1,989	82.8	85.0
Nat'l. Capital	3,171	3,599	88.1	95.0
Central	3,966	3,595	110.3	100.0
Milne Bay	3,491	3,719	93.9	95.0
Oro	2,096	2,504	83.7	90.0
South. Highlands	5,164	7,917	65.2	70.0
Enga	3,947	4,727	83.5	85.0
West. Highlands	6,785	7,436	91.2	95.0
Simbu	4,282	4,234	101.1	100.0
East. Highlands	7,147	7,915	90.3	92.0
Morobe	10,394	9,526	109.1	100.0
Madang	4,801	7,100	67.6	75.0
East Sepik	5,990	6,735	88.9	95.0
West Sepik	2,443	3,340	73.1	80.0
Manus	950	814	116.7	100.0
New Ireland	1,848	2,013	91.8	95.0
East New Britain	3,844	3,840	100.0	100.0
West New Britain	2,640	2,895	91.2	96.0
North Solomons	4,963	4,116	120.5	100.0
TOTAL	81,771	90,498	90.4	95.0

Table 1C. Total enrolment of 7-year-olds by sex, 1983

Province	*BOYS*				*GIRLS*			
	7-year-olds enrolled	*7-year-old population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*	*7-year-olds enrolled*	*7-year-old population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	1,202	1,313	92.2	100.0	1,001	1,171	86.2	90.0
Gulf	933	1,011	92.3	95.0	713	978	72.9	80.0
Nat'l Capital	1,668	1,918	87.0	95.0	1,503	1,681	89.4	95.0
Central	2,137	1,871	114.2	100.0	1,829	1,724	106.1	100.0
Milne Bay	1,895	1,902	99.6	100.0	1,596	1,817	87.8	95.0
Oro	1,164	1,279	91.4	95.0	932	1,225	76.1	85.0
South.Highlands	2,976	4,123	72.2	78.0	2,188	3,794	57.7	65.0
Enga	2,360	2,427	97.2	100.0	1,587	2,300	69.0	80.0
West.Highlands	3,771	3,876	97.2	100.0	3,014	3,560	84.7	90.0
Simbu	2,456	2,235	109.7	100.0	1,826	1,999	91.4	95.0
East.Highlands	3,901	4,122	94.6	95.0	3,246	3,793	85.6	89.0
Morobe	6,237	4,918	126.8	100.0	4,157	4,608	90.2	95.0
Madang	2,837	3,735	75.9	80.0	1,964	3,365	58.4	65.0
East Sepik	3,447	3,650	94.4	95.0	2,543	3,085	82.4	85.0
West Sepik	1,506	1,716	87.8	95.0	937	1,624	58.1	65.0
Manus	539	432	124.8	100.0	411	382	107.6	100.0
New Ireland	1,017	1,117	91.0	95.0	831	896	92.7	95.0
East New Britain	2,019	1,991	101.4	100.0	1,825	1,849	98.7	100.0
West New Britain	1,423	1,544	92.2	96.0	1,217	1,351	90.1	96.0
North Solomons	2,531	2,135	118.5	100.0	2,432	1,981	122.8	100.0
TOTAL	46,019	47,315	97.3	100.0	35,752	43,183	82.8	90.0

Table 2. Enrolment in grades I-VI, 1983

Province	*Gr. I-VI enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	9,981	14,392	69.3	84.0
Gulf	8,019	11 903	67.4	75.0
Nat'l. Capital	14,411	18,639	77.3	85.0
Central	16,223	21,176	76.6	82.0
Milne Bay	16,377	23,470	69.8	75.0
Oro	9,679	14,743	65.7	72.0
South. Highlands	21,756	43,639	49.9	60.0
Enga	13,790	26,150	52.7	60.0
West. Highlands	23,660	43,783	54.0	60.0
Simbu	15,378	26,445	58.2	67.0
East. Highlands	25,679	47,446	54.1	60.0
Morobe	32,278	54,882	58.8	65.0
Madang	21,185	37,956	55.8	60.0
East Sepik	25,956	39,005	66.5	70.0
West Sepik	11,666	16,737	69.7	75.0
Manus	4,860	4,750	102.3	100.0
New Ireland	8,968	11,338	79.1	85.0
East New Britain	18,109	21,264	85.2	90.0
West New Britain	13,030	16,157	80.6	90.0
North Solomons	16,009	22,213	72.0	72.0
TOTAL	327,014	516,088	63.4	70.0

Table 2A. Enrolment in grades I-VI by sex, 1983

Province	*BOYS*				*GIRLS*			
	Gr. I-VI Enrolment	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*	*Gr. I- VI Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	5,604	7,530	74.4	84.0	4,377	6,862	63.9	70.0
Gulf	4,702	6,183	76.0	80.0	3,317	5,720	58.0	70.0
Nat'l.Capital	7,735	9,866	78.4	85.0	6,676	8,773	76.1	85.0
Central	8,839	11,022	80.2	84.0	7,384	10,154	72.7	80.0
Milne Bay	8,865	12,224	72.5	80.0	7,512	11,246	66.8	75.0
Oro	5,420	7,687	70.5	80.0	4,259	7,056	60.4	70.0
South Highlands	12,328	22,728	54.2	60.0	9,428	20,911	45.1	60.0
Enga	8,525	13,364	63.8	70.0	5,265	12,786	41.2	50.0
West.Highlands	13,206	22,525	58.6	65.0	10,454	21,258	49.2	55.0
Simbu	9,099	13,860	65.6	70.0	6,279	12,595	49.9	60.0
East.Highlands	14,556	24,974	58.3	65.0	11,123	22,472	49.5	55.0
Morobe	18,962	28,785	65.9	70.0	13,316	26,097	51.0	60.0
Madang	12,775	19,952	64.0	70.0	8,410	18,004	46.7	55.0
East Sepik	14,815	19,503	76.0	80.0	11,141	19,502	57.1	63.0
West Sepik	7,381	8,694	84.9	90.0	4,285	8,043	53.3	60.0
Manus	2,596	2,469	105.1	100.0	2,264	2,281	99.3	100.0
New Ireland	4,846	5,872	82.5	87.0	4,122	5,466	75.4	82.0
East New Britain	9,640	10,701	90.1	90.0	8,469	10,563	80.2	84.0
West New Britain	7,479	8,704	85.9	90.0	5,551	7,453	74.5	80.0
North Solomons	8,390	11,440	73.3	72.0	7,619	10,773	70.7	72.0
TOTAL	185,763	268,083	69.3	75.0	141,251	248,005	57.0	62.0

Table 2B. Total primary age-group enrolment in various stream, 1983

Province	*Age-group enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	10,135	14,392	70.4	84.0
Gulf	8,281	11,903	69.6	75.0
Nat'l. Capital	15,275	18,639	81.9	85.0
Central	17,177	21,176	81.1	82.0
Milne Bay	16,438	23,470	70.0	75.0
Oro	9,818	14,743	66.6	72.0
South. Highlands	21,889	43,639	50.2	60.0
Enga	14,037	26,150	53.7	60.0
West. Highlands	23,978	43,783	54.8	60.0
Simbu	15,537	26,445	58.8	67.0
East. Highlands	26,508	47,446	55.9	62.0
Morobe	39,191	54,882	71.4	75.0
Madang	21,735	37,956	57.3	65.0
East Sepik	26,397	39,005	67.7	70.0
West Sepik	11,666	16,737	69.7	75.0
Manus	5,233	4,750	110.2	100.0
New Ireland	9,456	11,338	83.4	85.0
East New Britain	18,556	21,264	81.4	85.0
West New Britain	13,140	16,157	81.3	85.0
North Solomons	18,307	22,213	82.4	85.0
TOTAL	342,754	516,088	66.4	70.0

Table 2C. Total primary age-group enrolment by sex, 1983

Province	*BOYS*				*GIRLS*			
	Gr. I-VI Enrolment	*Age-group population*	*Percentages of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*	*Gr. I-VI Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	5,689	7,530	75.6	84.0	4,446	6,862	64.9	70.0
Gulf	4,874	6,183	78.8	80.0	3,407	5,720	59.6	70.0
Nat'l.Capital	8,231	9,866	83.4	85.0	7,044	8,773	80.3	85.0
Central	9,381	11,022	85.1	90.0	7,796	10,154	76.8	80.0
Milne Bay	8,889	12,224	72.8	80.0	7,549	11,246	67.1	75.0
Oro	5,505	7,687	71.6	80.0	4,313	7,056	61.1	70.0
South.Highlands	12,400	22,728	54.6	60.0	9,489	20,911	45.4	60.0
Enga	8,659	13,364	64.8	70.0	5,378	12,786	42.1	50.0
West.Highlands	13,385	22,525	59.4	65.0	10,593	21,258	49.8	55.0
Simbu	9,209	13,860	66.4	70.0	6,328	12,585	50.2	60.0
East.Highlands	15,081	24,974	60.4	65.0	11,427	22,472	50.8	55.0
Morobe	23,596	28,785	84.9	90.0	15,595	26,097	59.8	65.0
Madang	13,142	19,952	65.9	70.0	8,593	18,004	47.7	55.0
East Sepik	15,063	19,503	77.2	80.0	11,334	19,502	58.1	63.0
West Sepik	7,381	8,694	84.9	90.0	4,285	8,043	53.3	60.0
Manus	2,814	2,469	114.0	100.0	2,419	2,281	106.0	100.0
New Ireland	5,096	5,872	86.8	90.0	4,360	5,466	79.8	83.0
East New Britain	9,890	10,701	92.4	85.0	8,666	10,563	82.0	85.0
West New Britain	7,539	8,704	86.6	90.0	5,601	7,453	75.2	80.0
North Solomons	9,590	11,440	83.8	85.0	8,717	10,773	80.9	85.0
TOTAL	195,414	268,083	72.9	75.0	147,340	248,005	59.4	65.0

Table 3. Retention rates, 1983

Province	*1978 Gr. I Enrolment*	*1983 Gr. VI Enrolment*	*Percentage of this age-group retained*	*1978 target percentage*
Western	1,882	1,301	69.1	75.0
Gulf	1,480	1,067	72.1	75.0
Nat'l. Capital	2,131	1,937	90.9	95.0
Central	2,443	1,838	75.2	80.0
Milne Bay	2,878	2,078	72.2	78.0
Oro	1,781	1,262	70.9	75.0
South Highlands	4,139	2,239	54.1	65.0
Enga	2,736	1,423	52.0	60.0
West Highlands	4,089	2,296	56.2	60.0
Simbu	3,131	1,630	52.1	65.0
East. Highlands	3,833	2,246	58.6	65.0
Morobe	4,061	3,059	75.3	80.0
Madang	2,926	2,196	75.1	78.0
East Sepik	4,264	3,142	73.7	78.0
West Sepik	1,943	1,306	67.2	70.0
Manus	826	824	99.7	95.0
New Ireland	1,490	1,049	70.4	75.0
East New Britain	4,112	2,481	60.3	70.0
West New Britain	1,894	1,499	79.1	85.0
North Solomons	2,767	2,096	75.7	80.0
TOTAL	54,806	36,969	67.5	75.0

Table 3A. Retention rates by sex, 1983

Province	*BOYS*				*GIRLS*			
	1978 Gr. I Enrolment	*1983 Gr. VI Enrolment*	*Percentage of this age-group retained*	*1987 target percentage*	*1978 Gr. I Enrolment*	*1983 Gr. VI Enrolment*	*Percentage of this age-group retained*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	1,082	704	65.1	70.0	800	597	74.6	80.0
Gulf	889	652	73.3	75.0	591	415	70.2	75.0
Nat'l.Capital	1,166	1,076	92.3	95.0	965	861	89.2	95.0
Central	1,356	1,092	80.5	82.0	1,087	746	68.6	78.0
Milne Bay	1,594	1,137	71.3	75.0	1,284	941	73.3	75.0
Oro	1,041	742	71.3	75.0	740	520	70.3	75.0
South.Highlands	2,678	1,305	48.7	60.0	1,461	934	63.9	70.0
Enga	1,885	898	47.6	60.0	851	525	61.7	65.0
West.Highlands	2,427	1,328	54.7	60.0	1,662	968	58.2	60.0
Simbu	1,903	1,005	52.8	65.0	1,228	625	50.9	65.0
East.Highlands	2,216	1,302	58.8	65.0	1,617	944	58.4	65.0
Morobe	2,467	1,817	73.7	78.0	1,594	1,242	77.9	83.0
Madang	1,839	1,358	73.8	77.0	1,087	838	76.0	79.0
East Sepik	2,497	1,827	73.2	80.0	1,767	1,315	74.4	80.0
West Sepik	1,245	876	70.4	75.0	698	430	61.6	65.0
Manus	415	426	102.7	100.0	411	398	96.8	95.0
New Ireland	803	570	71.0	75.0	687	479	69.7	75.0
East New Britain	2,075	1,337	64.4	70.0	2,037	1,144	56.2	70.0
West New Britain	995	857	86.1	90.0	899	642	71.4	80.0
North Solomons	1,508	1,125	74.6	80.0	1,259	971	77.1	80.0
TOTAL	32,081	21,434	66.8	70.0	22,752	15,535	68.4	75.0

Table 4. Transfer rates from primary to high school, 1982-1983

Province	*1982 Gr. VI Enrolment*	*1983 Gr. VII Enrolment*	*Percentage of this age-group promoted*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	1,325	400	30.2	40.0
Gulf	908	327	36.0	35.0
Nat'1. Capital	2,006	763	38.0	40.0
Central	1,929	862	44.7	45.0
Milne Bay	2,509	590	22.6	25.0
Oro	1,255	329	26.2	30.0
South. Highlands	2,174	837	38.5	40.0
Enga	1,254	458	36.5	40.0
West. Highlands	2,155	1,011	46.9	40.0
Simbu	1,850	771	41.7	40.0
East. Highlands	3,146	858	27.3	30.0
Morobe	4,017	1,025	25.5	27.0
Madang	2,536	735	29.0	30.0
East Sepik	2,928	920	31.4	35.0
West Sepik	1,674	590	33.4	35.0
Manus	554	320	57.7	60.0
New Ireland	1,224	473	38.6	40.0
East New Britain	2,728	1,097	40.2	50.0
West New Britain	1,433	501	35.0	40.0
North Solomons	1,826	629	34.4	35.0
TOTAL	39,431	13,496	34.2	35.0

Table 4A. Transfer rates from primary to high school by sex, 1982-1983

	BOYS				*GIRLS*			
Province	*1982 Gr. VI Enrolment*	*1983 Gr. VII Enrolment*	*Percentage of this age-group promoted*	*1987 target percentage*	*1982 Gr. VI Enrolment*	*1983 Gr. VII Enrolment*	*Percentage of this age-group promoted*	*1987 target percentage*
Western	773	279	36.1	40.0	552	121	21.9	40.0
Gulf	562	212	37.7	35.0	346	115	33.2	35.0
Nat'l.Capital	1,061	418	39.4	40.0	945	345	36.5	40.0
Central	1,102	513	46.5	45.0	827	349	42.2	45.0
Milne Bay	1,403	362	25.8	25.0	1,106	228	20.4	25.0
Oro	722	261	36.1	30.0	533	68	12.8	20.0
South.Highlands	1,370	530	38.7	40.0	804	307	38.2	40.0
Enga	864	324	37.5	40.0	390	134	34.4	40.0
West.Highlands	1,229	696	56.6	40.0	926	315	34.0	40.0
Simbu	1,187	579	48.8	45.0	663	192	29.0	35.0
East.Highlands	1,939	604	31.2	35.0	1,207	254	21.0	25.0
Morobe	2,393	668	27.9	30.0	1,624	357	22.0	25.0
Madang	1,554	502	32.3	38.0	982	233	23.7	30.0
East Sepik	1,837	589	32.0	35.0	1,091	331	30.3	35.0
West Sepik	1,122	418	37.3	35.0	552	172	31.7	35.0
Manus	311	180	57.9	60.0	243	140	57.6	60.0
New Ireland	698	252	36.1	40.0	526	221	42.0	40.0
East New Britain	1,426	577	40.5	50.0	1,302	520	39.9	50.0
West New Britain	836	321	38.4	40.0	597	180	30.2	40.0
North Solomons	1,049	383	36.5	35.0	777	246	31.7	35.0
TOTAL	23,438	8,668	37.0	35.0	15,993	4,828	30.2	35.0

Table 5. Staff numbers and ratios

Province	*1983 Actual*					*1987 Target*				
	Average teacher-pupil ratio 1:x	*Average teacher-inspector ratio 1:x*	*No. of teachers*			*No. of inspectors*	*Average teacher-pupil ratio 1:x*	*Average teacher-inspector ratio 1:x*	*No. of teachers*	*No. of inspectors*
			Male	*Female*	*Total*					
Western	29.1	69	277	66	343	5	35.0	73	365	5
Gulf	30.8	65	214	46	260	4	32.0	70	280	4
Nat'l. Capital	36.6	80	155	239	394	5	35.0	75	450	6
Central	31.6	86	394	120	514	6	32.0	80	560	7
Milne Bay	31.3	66	360	166	526	8	32.0	70	560	8
Oro	33.0	73	209	84	293	4	35.0	84	335	4
South. Highlands	32.3	85	568	105	673	8	35.0	80	790	10
Enga	30.3	91	368	87	455	5	33.0	83	495	6
West. Highlands	33.0	102	552	166	718	7	35.0	90	800	9
Simbu	31.2	99	401	92	493	5	30.0	83	579	7
East Highlands	34.3	94	595	154	749	8	35.0	85	930	11
Morobe	33.9	87	613	339	952	11	35.0	85	1,110	13
Madang	32.0	94	535	129	664	7	34.0	78	777	10
East Sepik	33.0	94	569	181	750	8	35.0	82	898	11
West Sepik	28.5	68	336	74	410	6	30.0	76	454	6
Manus	32.0	76	93	59	152	2	33.5	72	144	2
New Ireland	27.2	83	225	105	330	4	27.5	70	345	5
East New Britain	28.1	93	389	254	643	7	33.0	88	705	8
West New Britain	28.9	90	271	179	450	5	30.0	83	495	6
North Solomons	29.7	90	286	252	538	6	30.0	76	610	8
TOTAL	31.7	84	7,410	2,897	10,307	121	33.0	79	11,682	146

Table 6. Grade I enrolment in non-community schools, 1983

Province	*Gr. I Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group enrolled*
Western	33	2,484	1.3
Gulf	51	1,989	2.6
Nat'l. Capital	315	3,599	8.8
Central	187	3,595	5.2
Milne Bay	8	3,719	0.2
Oro	5	2,504	0.2
South. Highlands	24	7,917	0.3
Enga	76	4,727	1.6
West. Highlands	138	7,436	1.9
Simbu	14	4,234	0.3
East. Highlands	144	7,915	1.8
Morobe	2,883	9,526	30.3
Madang	123	7,100	1.7
East Sepik	79	6,735	1.2
West Sepik	–	–	–
Manus	66	814	8.1
New Ireland	69	2,013	3.4
East New Britain	115	3,840	3.0
West New Britain	29	2,895	1.0
North Solomons	1,081	4,116	26.3
TOTAL	5,440	87,158	6.2

Table 6A. Grade I enrolment in non-community schools by sex, 1983

	BOYS			*GIRLS*		
Province	*Gr. I Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*Gr. I Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*
Western	18	1,313	1.4	15	1,171	1.3
Gulf	27	1,011	2.7	24	978	2.5
Nat'l. Capital	179	1,918	9.3	136	1,681	8.1
Central	97	1,871	5.2	90	1,724	5.2
Milne Bay	5	1,902	0.3	3	1,817	0.2
Oro	3	1,273	0.2	2	1,225	0.2
South. Highlands	16	4,123	0.4	8	3,794	0.2
Enga	36	2,427	1.5	40	2,300	1.7
West. Highlands	82	3,876	2.1	56	3,560	1.6
Simbu	8	2,235	0.4	6	1,999	0.3
East. Highlands	89	4,122	2.2	55	3,793	1.5
Morobe	1,867	4,918	38.0	1,016	4,608	22.0
Madang	61	7,100	0.9	62	3,365	1.8
East Sepik	44	3,650	1.2	35	3,085	1.1
West Sepik	–	–	–	–	–	–
Manus	52	432	12.0	14	382	3.7
New Ireland	31	1,117	2.8	38	896	4.2
East New Britain	63	1,991	3.2	52	1,849	2.8
West New Britain	20	1,544	1.3	9	1,351	0.7
North Solomons	579	2,135	27.1	502	1,981	25.3
TOTAL	3,277	48,958	6.7	2,163	41,559	5.2

Table 7. Grade I-VI enrolment in non-community schools, 1983

Province	*Gr. I-VI Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*
Western	164	14,392	1.1
Gulf	262	11,903	2.2
Nat'l. Capital	834	18,639	4.5
Central	954	21,175	4.5
Milne Bay	71	23,470	0.3
Oro	139	14,743	0.9
South. Highlands	133	43,639	0.3
Enga	247	26,150	0.9
West. Highlands	351	43,783	0.8
Simbu	159	26,445	0.6
East. Highlands	829	47,446	1.8
Morobe	6,913	54,882	12.6
Madang	550	37,956	1.5
East Sepik	441	39,005	1.1
West Sepik	–	–	–
Manus	373	4,750	7.9
New Ireland	488	11,338	4.3
East New Britain	447	22,797	2.0
West New Britain	110	16,157	0.7
North Solomons	2,298	22,213	10.3
TOTAL	15,763	500,883	3.1

Table 7A. Grade I-VI enrolment in non-community schools by sex, 1983

	BOYS			*GIRLS*		
Province	*Gr. I-VI Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*	*Gr. I-VI Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*
Western	85	7,530	1.1	79	6,862	1.1
Gulf	172	6,183	2.8	90	5,720	1.6
Nat'l. Capital	481	9,866	4.9	353	8,773	4.0
Central	542	10,631	5.1	412	10,544	4.0
Milne Bay	34	12,224	0.3	37	11,246	0.3
Oro	85	7,687	1.1	54	7,056	0.8
South Highlands	72	22,728	0.3	61	20,911	0.3
Enga	134	13,364	1.0	113	12,786	0.9
West. Highlands	201	22,525	0.9	150	21,258	0.7
Simbu	110	13,863	0.8	49	12,590	0.4
East. Highlands	525	24,974	2.1	304	22,472	1.4
Morobe	4,634	27,785	16.7	2,279	26,097	8.7
Madang	367	19,952	1.8	183	18,004	1.0
East Sepik	248	19,503	1.3	193	19,502	1.0
West Sepik	–	–	–	–	–	–
Manus	218	2,469	8.8	155	2,281	6.8
New Ireland	250	5,872	4.3	238	5,466	4.3
East New Britain	250	10,701	2.3	197	10,563	1.9
West New Britain	60	8,704	0.7	50	7,453	0.7
North Solomons	1,200	11,440	10.5	1,098	10,773	10.2
TOTAL	9,668	258,001	3.7	6,095	240,357	2.5

Table 8A. Provincial expenditure for primary education, 1983

Province	*Total provincial budget K*	*Provincial education budget K*	*Provincial primary budget K*	*Primary teacher salaries K*
Western	6,909.8	1,705.0	1,184.5	1,036.7
Gulf	4,838.8	1,436.8	1,293.1	1,280.3
Nat'l. Capital	9,214.5	3,177.4	2,042.3	1,662.4
Central	9,538.6	3,410.9	1,787.6	1,616.0
Milne Bay	7,522.1	2,607.0	1,956.4	1,682.8
Oro	6,987.0	2,008.5	1,443.6	1,196.6
South.Highlands	13,862.6	4,562.0	3,047.2	2,835.9
Enga	12,000.0	2,541.0	2,179.0	1,918.0
West.Highlands	9,479.0	4,040.0	3,126.0	2,752.0
Simbu	12,283.9	3,266.7	2,152.8	1,846.6
East.Highlands	16,640.5	4,923.2	3,326.0	3,028.2
Morobe	17,202.3	6,129.0	4,057.6	3,750.6
Madang	11,360.6	4,501.3	2,637.1	2,482.1
East Sepik	13,399.9	4,582.2	3,230.1	2,904.6
West Sepik	9,790.0	3,150.0	1,782.5	1,681.3
Manus	2,753.0	925.3	614.6	584.6
New Ireland	7,943.9	2,786.0	1,610.5	1,528.3
East New Britain	12,112.1	4,237.2	2,769.2	2,677.2
West New Britain	7,780.1	2,856.3	2,184.5	1,971.5
North Solomons	12,372.3	3,092.4	2,233.7	2,104.0
TOTAL	203,991	65,898.2	44,658.3	40,539.7

Table 8B. Provincial expenditure for primary education, percentages, 1983

Province	*Teacher salaries/ primary education budget*	*Other primary education costs*	*Primary education/ provincial education budget*	*Primary education/ provincial budget*	*Provincial education budget/ total provincial budget*
Western	87.5	12.5	69.5	17.1	24.7
Gulf	99.0	1.0	90.0	26.7	29.7
Nat'l. Capital	81.4	18.6	64.3	22.2	34.5
Central	90.4	9.6	52.4	18.7	35.8
Milne Bay	86.0	14.0	75.0	26.0	34.7
Oro	82.9	17.1	71.9	20.7	28.7
South. Highlands	93.1	6.9	66.8	22.0	32.9
Enga	88.0	12.0	75.5	18.2	21.2
West. Highlands	88.0	12.0	77.4	33.0	42.6
Simbu	85.8	14.2	65.9	17.5	26.6
East. Highlands	91.0	9.0	67.6	20.0	29.6
Morobe	92.4	7.6	66.2	23.6	35.6
Madang	94.1	5.9	58.6	23.2	39.6
East Sepik	89.9	10.1	70.5	24.1	34.2
West Sepik	94.3	5.7	56.6	18.2	32.2
Manus	95.1	4.9	66.4	22.3	33.6
New Ireland	94.9	5.1	58.6	20.3	34.6
East New Britain	96.7	3.3	65.4	22.9	35.0
West New Britain	90.2	9.8	76.5	28.1	36.7
North Solomons	94.2	5.8	72.2	18.1	25.0
PNG	90.7	9.3	68.3	22.1	32.4

Table 8C. Per capita education costs, 1983

Province	*Government per capita cost* *K*	*School fee* *K*	*Total provincial per capita cost* *K*
Western	118.80	5.00	123.80
Gulf	161.25	4.00	165.25
Nat'l. Capital	141.70	18.00	159.70
Central	110.20	10.00	120.20
Milne Bay	119.50	4.00	123.50
Oro	149.15	10.00	159.15
South.Highlands	140.10	3.90	144.00
Enga	158.00	5.00	163.00
West.Highlands	132.20	10.00	142.20
Simbu	140.0	8.00	148.00
East.Highlands	129.50	11.50	141.00
Morobe	125.70	12.00	137.70
Madang	124.50	7.00	131.50
East Sepik	124.40	2.00	126.40
West Sepik	152.80	9.00	161.80
Manus	126.50	5.00	131.50
New Ireland	179.60	–	179.60
East New Britain	152.90	4.00	156.90
West New Britain	167.65	16.50	184.15
North Solomons	139.50	9.00	148.50
PNG	139.70	8.10	147.39

Table 9. Special schools, 1983

Province	*No. of one-teacher schools*	*No. of two-teacher schools*	*No. of other teachers with multiple classes*	*Total No. primary Schools*
Western	1	0	0	87
Gulf	6	10	7	70
Nat'l. Capital	0	0	0	33
Central	14	48	20	146
Milne Bay	4	5	16	150
Oro	4	23	21	78
South.Highlands	0	8	22	132
Enga	4	6	5	154
West.Highlands	2	10	10	92
Simbu	0	2	42	124
East.Highlands	1	4	5	89
Morobe	7	25	20	200
Madang	4	11	7	128
East Sepik	5	21	18	116
West Sepik	4	34	7	167
Manus	16	25	21	53
New Ireland	6	23	12	97
East New Britain	1	7	6	117
West New Britain	6	21	24	105
North Solomons	8	23	10	134
TOTAL	93	306	273	2,272

Chapter Four

NATIONAL POLICIES AFFECTING UNIVERSALIZATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

The national development strategy

In October 1976 the Papua New Guinea Government published a White Paper outlining a strategy for development in line with national goals. All future development was to be measured against the Eight Aims, which emphasized rural development, self-reliance, more equal distribution of income and benefits, small-scale economic activity, decentralization of decision making, increased participation of women and greater Papua New Guinean control of the economy. The National Development Strategy was a further refinement of these goals. The principles of this strategy are listed below.

Integral human development. Every person should be dynamically involved in the process of freeing himself or herself from every form of domination or oppression so that each man or woman will have the opportunity to develop as a whole person in relationship with others.

Equality and participation. All citizens should have an equal opportunity to participate in, and benefit from, the development of our country.

National sovereignty and self-reliance. Papua New Guinea should be politically and economically independent, and its economy basically self-reliant.

Natural resource conservation. Papua New Guinea's natural resources and environment should be conserved and used for the collective benefit of us all, and to be replenished for the benefit of future generations.

Preservation of national traditions. Development should be pursued primarily through the use of Papua New Guinean forms of social, political and economic organization.

The National Public Expenditure Plan

This plan was outlined in 1977 and introduced in the budget for 1978-1981. It is a rolling plan for four years. The National Public Expenditure Plan (NPEP) represents a first step in a long-term effort to redirect expenditure. There are two important reasons for this long-term approach. The annual budget process can make some marginal changes in expenditure patterns but cannot generate important initiatives for any single year because in any year most of the available funds are already committed by decisions taken in the preceding year. With year-to-year planning there is a tendency to allocate small amounts to all activities, resulting in few visible achievements in any one direction. The rolling four-year structure of the NPEP allows projects to be prioritized by deferring less important projects until later in the plan period.

These considerations led to a new approach to expenditure planning. Expenditure on existing policy will be controlled and limited. In general, total expenditure on current activities by each department has been kept constant in real terms; i.e. appropriations have been increased only to offset the effects of inflation. Second, the limited room for growth in total government expenditures will be reserved for projects in the following strategic areas: aid to less developed areas; improving subsistence agriculture; economic production; food production, marketing and nutrition; urban management; environmental protection; effective administration; increasing Papua New Guinean participation in the economy; rural welfare and rural education.

1977 Education policy

The following policies set by the National Government in 1977 still form the basis of educational planning at the primary level.

1. Education and training are important in improving the well-being of the people by providing access to improved skills. Education must therefore relate to the needs of life in the villages, where the majority of the people live.

2. Universal primary education is one of the major goals of the Government. Approximately 68 per cent of school age children now attend primary schools, and it is the Government's

objective to increase this to 82 per cent by 1980 and 92 per cent by 1985.

3. The education system has expanded very rapidly in recent years and this expansion will continue.

4. One feature of the education system is the great imbalance between males and females enrolled. Although the proportion of girls enrolled in different provinces has changed, there was no national improvement in the proportion of girls enrolled in grade 1 from 1970 to 1975 (grade 1 enrolments by sex are shown in the Appendix). Further initiatives are required, particularly at the provincial level, to increase the proportion of girls enrolling and continuing in school.

1978 Education policy

The policy of equity was established in this year, and the goal of universal primary education clearly stated. Through community education Papua New Guinea hoped to develop literacy and numeracy among all its people. These skills are essential to the success of extension programmes aimed at rural areas. Through adult education courses and non-formal education programmes the Government aimed to make these skills available to both adult and juvenile students. Increased involvement of females in community education programmes was also planned.

To achieve the goal of universal primary education the National Government decided to commit a significant proportion of the NPEP over the following eight years. The community education budgets were given a 5 per cent growth ceiling, meaning that the total community education budget of K30 million would reach K36.5 million in 1982 and K44.3 million by 1986 at constant 1978 prices. This rate of expenditure would allow the achievement of universal entry to community school education by 1996. It would also enable the Ministry of Education to develop a longer-term plan for community education. Such a plan would include provisions for expansion of schools, teacher education, in-service training, inspection and curriculum development.

In the process of expansion the highest priority would be given to those provinces with below-average access to community school education. Continued emphasis would be placed on the development of community school structures and curriculum to meet the needs of rural communities.

1979 Education policy

It was decided in 1979 that from the beginning of 1980 there would be a new policy initiative. The money set aside for universal primary education had previously been reserved for access to education and for retention, but now other aspects would be covered. Provincial governments by 1979 were having more say in policy setting. They were able to request funds for a variety of projects, including water tanks, library books, resource centres and teacher housing improvements. This was a change from the previous National Executive Council policy, which stated that all structural facilities for community education were a community responsibility. To the extent that funds were allocated to these activities the less likely it would be that Papua New Guinea could achieve universal entry to community education by 1996. It was therefore necessary for the National Executive Council to reconsider this policy area during 1980. If the new policy initiative were rejected, universalization could be reached by 1996 but provincial governments would be disappointed, arguing that the qualitative aspects of community education needed to be improved. Some provinces, particularly in the highlands, were having trouble retaining or attracting teachers, and would not have been able to achieve their targets unless moves were made to upgrade their facilities.

The 1980 review would be critical because if the National Executive Council maintained existing policy, the allocated funds will be insufficient to meet the proposed target. The target, however, could be achieved at lower standards. If the Council changed the existing policy, more funds would have to be allocated to achieve the target or else the target date would have to be postponed.

1980 Education policy

In 1980 the education policy was widened for 1981. The 1996 target date was retained. In support of this goal the total community education budget was allowed to grow at 5 per cent a year in real terms. This would permit the development of a longer-term education plan with provision for expansion of community schools, teacher education, inspection, curriculum development and funding for less advantaged provinces.

The main problem in 1981 was that the supply of trained teachers was well behind target because of a lack of graduates from provincial high schools. There also continued to be some pressure from the provinces to spend increased resources on projects designed to increase the quality of community education. The Governments' inability to train enough teachers and the desire of the provinces to concentrate on improving educational standards rather than access and retention could work against achieving universal primary education by 1996.

In addition to allocating funds for the expansion of community education, the Government initiated a major programme in the 1981-84 NPEP designed to improve standards in community education. This programme, to be financed by the World Bank, included projects to:

1. Improve and expand the capacity of Port Moresby In-Service-Training College to upgrade community teacher skills

2. Develop and test text books appropriate to community school curricula

3. Construct a building to house the Standards Division of the Department of Education

4. Expand the capacity of the Department of Education printing facilities.

The Department of Education also planned to establish and expand a staff development and localization programme to train provincial education planners, teachers' college lecturers, curriculum writers and audio-visual personnel. This initiative was a major step in the development of a policy to improve standards within the education system and to lessen dependence on expatriate manpower in key areas.

Free primary education

In 1981 the Government decided to establish a free primary education scheme to be introduced in 1982 as a major incentive towards universal primary education. However, the amount of money proposed for this scheme was reduced and the target date was unrealistic. The idea of this plan was that schools would be subsidized by the Government rather than by the usual school fees collected by the Boards of Management.

Under the Organic Law, a provincial government had the right to accept the money or reject it. Five provinces in early 1982 decided not to accept it. Some believed that parents should pay a small fee to help contribute to the cost of education. Others objected that the amount offered was calculated on the basis of actual fees charged in 1981, and that there should be a flat rate for all provinces. In some provinces the funds were badly administered and most schools did not receive the money. Many schools continued to charge fees and so the whole programme suffered many problems in 1982.

A new Government was elected in 1982 and replaced the free primary education scheme with a fee subsidy scheme. Under this system, provinces could decide if the subsidies would be used for primary or secondary, and state the amount each school should get. Cheques were then to be sent to each school early in 1983. This idea met with immediate acceptance in all provinces. The money has largely been used to subsidize high school boarding fees. Only two provinces have maintained free primary education, but all others have allocated some of the subsidy towards community school fees. This should be an incentive for universal primary education.

Target dates for universal primary education

In 1978 the target set for universal primary education was 1996. The following table shows the desired progression to universal enrolment in grade I and the desired consolidated retention rate in grades I-VI from 1978-1990.

Year	Estimated 7-Year-Old Population	Grade I Intake	% of 7-Year-olds Enrolled	Grades I-VI Enrolment	Estimated 7-12-Year-Old Population	% of 7-12-Year-Olds Enrolled
1978	85,150	55,084	64.6	247,753	465,465	53.2
1979	88,139	60,375	68.4	248,049	481,976	51.5
1980	91,129	64,019	70.2	258,282	498,486	51.8
1981	94,119	68,095	72.3	267,537	513,441	52.1
1982	97,819	73,934	75.5	284,638	528,844	53.8
1983	101,519	83,371	82.1	304,614	544,709	55.9
1984	105,220	88,424	84.0	330,529	561,050	58.9
1985	108,920	93,729	86.1	352,259	577,881	60.9
1986	112,620	96,769	85.9	375,434	595,217	63.1
1987	115,336	102,549	88.9	399,091	613,072	65.1
1988	118,052	108,702	92.0	423,934	631,464	67.1
1989	120,768	117,591	97.3	451,030	651,408	69.2
1990	123,484	123,484	100.0	480,581	669,920	71.7

Teacher education

One of the reasons why the 1996 target will be difficult to achieve is the fact that sufficient teachers cannot be trained. The required number of grade X graduates to train as teachers cannot possibly be met without a major and costly expansion of high schools, but Provincial Governments have shown that they are interested in a slower rate of progress. One earlier recommendation was to use a large number of teacher aides, but educationalists argued that although this could help to improve access, the standard of education would fall, so the plan was never implemented. Currently the National Government is committed to training the number of teachers requested by the Provincial Governments in their five year plans.

Training college enrolment for 1983 was slightly more than 1800 and the lecturing staff was only 129. This is a staff – student ratio of 1:14. One way to improve the quality of teacher training would be to reduce this ratio over a period of four years to 1:12. The two following tables show the number of places available and the staffing requirements for teacher training colleges.

Evaluation

An Evaluation Unit has been established within the National Department of Education to monitor the progress of primary education against 1982 base-line data. This includes all aspects of universalization. The Unit is also charged with training officers of Provincial Division of Education in evaluation techniques. The work of the Unit has resulted in heightened awareness of the need for continuous project evaluation.

Training of primary education personel

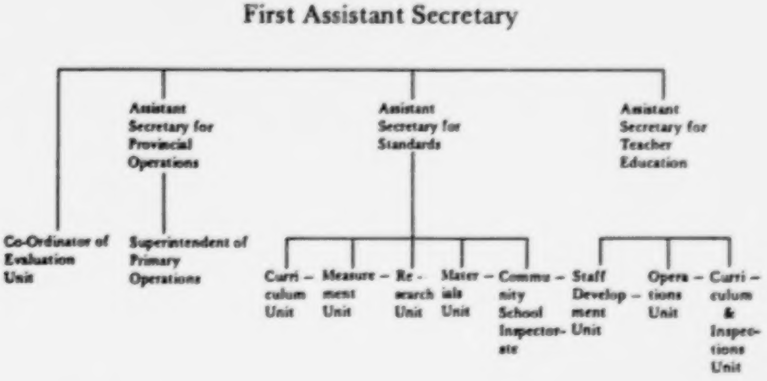
National Department of Education officers include the permanent Secretary, his senior executive staff (heads of the three branches of the Department), and the officers of the General Education Services (see page 79).

Primary teacher training college places

Year	*Pre-service*	*In-Service*	*Total*	*Recommendation*
1977	1,962	150	2,112	
1978	1,892	170	2,062	
1979	1,927	177	2,104	Policy decision, expansion of places for 1982
1980	2,102	187	2,289	Policy decision, expansion of places for 1983
1981	2,018	196	2,214	100 places for 1982
1982	2,540	205	2,745	500 places for 1983
1983	3,056	216	3,272	Policy decision, expansion of places for 1985-86
1984	3,014	223	3,237	200 places for 1985, policy decision 1986
1985	3,213	242	3,455	200 places for 1986, policy decision 1987
1986	3,396	257	3,653	200 places for 1987, policy decision 1988
1987	3,589	274	3,863	150 places for 1988, policy decision 1989
1988	3,733	292	4,025	
1989	3,713	310	4,023	
1990	3,695	330	4,025	

Staffing requirements in primary teacher training colleges, 1977-1990

Year	*Total places*	*Teacher-student ratio, pre-service*	*Teacher-student ratio, in-service*	*Staff required*	*Recommendation*
1977	2,112	1:15	1:10	141	
1978	2,078	1:15	1:10	144	
1979	2,104	1:15	1:10	146	
1980	2,289	1:15	1:10	158	Make policy decisions and carry out recruitment programmes as appropriate
1981	2,214	1:15	1:10	154	
1982	2,745	1:15	1:10	189	
1983	3,272	1:15	1:10	225	
1984	3,237	1:15	1:10	223	
1985	3,455	1:15	1:10	238	
1986	3,652	1:15	1:10	252	
1987	3,863	1:15	1:10	266	
1988	4,025	1:15	1:10	278	
1989	4,023	1:15	1:10	278	
1990	4,025	1:15	1:10	279	


First Assistant Secretary
Assistant Secretary for Provincial Operations
Assistant Secretary for Standards
Assistant Secretary for Teacher Education
Co-Ordinator of Evaluation Unit
Superintendent of Primary Operations
Curriculum Unit
Measurement Unit
Research Unit
Materials Unit
Community School Inspectorate
Staff Development Unit
Operations Unit
Curriculum & Inspections Unit

In addition, various officers are involved in the Planning Services Division:

At the provincial level, there is a Minister of Education, an Assistant Secretary for Education and a Provincial Education Planner. At the institutional level there are teachers' college principals and lecturers, community school headmasters and teachers, and the 120 community school Inspectors. Primary education personnel at the community level include the members of Boards of Management, parents and community members in general.

All the personnel above need training of various kinds to be able to promote universalization of primary education. There is no overall plan to date for meeting such broad training needs. At present the National Department of Education trains provincial education planners through a degree and a diploma course in educational planning, and supplies some training in evaluation techniques. Soon provincial officers will be trained in writing project proposals to help in all aspects of universalization. The Minister for Education holds an annual conference for provincial Education Ministers and there some training needs are met. Similarly, the Secretary of the Department of Education meets annually with the Assistant Secretaries of provincial education divisions. Some provinces are talking of training sessions for members of Boards of Management, but little more than this is being done as yet at the provincial level.

More effectively planned and co-ordinated training at various levels would in the long term improve the chances of actually implementing successfully the national policy of achieving universal primary education early in the next century. While the Department of Education is relatively strong in planning for this, it is relatively weak in training education personnel in implementing UPE at the national and the provincial levels. The following steps might be considered:

1. A detailed outline of the existing programme for achieving universal primary education should be prepared. While many activities are underway no up-to-date and comprehensive statement exists.

2. Personnel at all levels, from the Secretary for Education to teachers, who have a role in implementing universalization of primary education should be identified and their activities described. This should include officers in the National Department of Education as well as officers in particular provincial projects.

3. The effectiveness of the work of each of the officers identified above should be assessed. Criteria might include such diverse indicators as awareness of the relationship of the officer's job to universalization and the officer's general agreement with the goal.

4. Once the functions of existing officers have been described and analyzed, it might be possible through further analysis, discussions and comparisons with other countries to identify additional personnel or functions that could further develop universal primary education.

5. The next step would be to review all present training activities for education officers. If training does not at present develop the skills needed to promote universalization, it should be altered. Proposals could also be made to develop new training for particular roles. Are teachers, for example, aware of their role in the development of universal primary education? Are they aware of its importance. Does the typical pre-service teacher training programme include any mention of this role? Are specific skills or techniques for encouraging universalization developed? Do inspectors or in-service sessions address activities related to universalization once the teacher is on the job? What training activities would most likely increase teacher effectiveness with regard to implementation of this policy? A similar exercise carried out with a sample of other key officers would assist in identifying additional training needs in this area.

6. The next step would be the actual development of new or revised training programmes. In many cases the trainers will themselves need training, particularly if their work has not previously been strongly related to universalization of primary education.

7. If new or revised training programmes emerge, their long-term effectiveness should be monitored so that the programmes can be updated and revised as necessary.

Chapter Five

PROGRAMMES AND PROJECTS

Improvement of community school education is very important for the development of Papua New Guinea because community schools produce citizens who can read and write and therefore contribute more to the nation. The government has set as one of its goals the achievement of universal primary education by the end of this century. Several projects are being implemented in order to help achieve this goal.

The Education II Programme

The government has allocated K25 million in addition to the normal community school costs for use through 1987. This money is intended to strengthen the activities of the departments concerned with community schools. About one half is being provided by a loan from the World Bank. The Department of Education has prepared a detailed plan called Education II, which describes a number of projects to improve educational management, increase the quality of community school education and increase community school enrolment. Education II is carefully designed to develop and reinforce present priorities within existing divisions of the Education Department, and is closely built into the Department's structure. The projects included in Education II are listed and briefly described below:

1. **Regional Planning Advisors.** Regional Planning Advisors are based in Port Moresby, Madang, Mount Hagen and Kieta. Their job is to assist provincial education staff in the preparation of detailed education plans for each province.

2. **Diploma In Educational Studies (Planning).** Education II is providing a full-time lecturer in Education Planning at the University of Papua New Guinea. He will organize and teach a basic diploma

course in planning for selected provincial staff. The course will relate directly to the practical concerns of the provincial education planners and will involve the Regional Planning Advisors.

3. **Integration of curriculum development and in-service training.** This project aims to develop ways to more effectively integrate the programmes of the Curriculum Development Unit and the Port Moresby In-Service College. It provides funds for a new Standards Division Building near the College.

4. **Provincial Primary Education Fund.** This fund can be used by provinces to finance specific projects that fit into their education plans and meet criteria such as relevance, feasibility and efficiency. The aim of the Fund is to improve the quality of community school education and increase the number of students who finish primary school. Provinces will be assisted in identifying projects, preparing detailed proposals and designing evaluation. Such projects might include resource centre development, in-service teacher training or development of curriculum materials.

5. **Development of training college staff.** The Teacher Education Division is attempting to increase the level of localization in the training colleges by systematically raising the level of confidence and competence of Papua New Guinea lecturers and associates. Education II is providing the Division with an additional staff member whose job is to assist teacher training college staff in the development of their professional skills in the planning and implementation of a programme.

6. **Low-cost School Construction Adviser.** Education II provides a full-time adviser in the provinces on the design and construction of low-cost schools and teacher housing. This project aims to reduce the cost of expanding community school enrolment.

7. **Textbook development.** Textbooks for mathematics, community life and health are being prepared by the Curriculum Unit as part of Education II and will be tested and distributed during the next three years. The completed books will be published commercially and made available to the provinces.

8. **Educational resource centres.** Education II is providing an advisor on the development of educational resource centres to the Materials Section of the Curriculum Unit. This advisor travels extensively

in the provinces to describe what resource centres might offer in terms of in-service, curriculum development and teaching materials development, and assists with the operation of existing centres and the planning of new ones.

9. **Measurement Services Unit.** Additional staff for this unit are being provided by Education II to help produce better measures of student achievement and increase data analysis capacity. This Unit helps to develop teachers' skills in testing, improve the quality of examinations and provides analyses of test results as an aid to curriculum development and planning.

10. **Improvement of In-Service College facilities.** Education II is funding the construction of a library, staff offices, audio-visual facilities and new hostel accommodation at the In-Service College. Special emphasis is to be placed on training teachers in the use of media.

11. **Audio-Visual aid development.** The Curriculum Unit will be able with Education II financing to improve its facilities and staff for the development of simple audio-visual aids. Staff will be trained to instruct teachers in preparing instructional aids for the classroom.

12. **Improvement of printshop facilities.** Education II funds will be used to relocate the educational printshop to the new Standards Division building. Curriculum developers and audio-visual technicians will have easier access to the facilities and will be able to produce materials more efficiently.

13. **School library development.** Education II will contribute to the improvement of community school library facilities and assist in developing library management skills in teachers.

14. **Evaluation Unit.** The Evaluation Unit is responsible for the overall evaluation of the projects of Education II. It will assist the projects in identifying the types of information needed to assess their development. The Unit will co-ordinate the collection of this information and ensure that it is fed back into the project development process. It will also help to provide in-service training in basic evaluation techniques to national and provincial staff.

The agriculture pilot project

The overall aim of this project is to provide a more useful and realistic education for community school children, especially in the area of agriculture. The prime concern is to develop teaching methods that will reinforce the current goals of community education.

The Community School Agriculture Pilot Project is based on the following assumptions:

1. Learning situations in community schools should be linked closely to local knowledge, materials, people and aspects of the local environment.

2. Practising teachers are the best people to initiate ideas and methods that will make learning relevant and meaningful for students in their own area.

3. If teachers are given suitable encouragement and support, they can develop their ideas to such a level that they will have an effect in improving community school education.

4. Ideas and suggestions developed by project teachers can be documented to help teachers in other areas to develop similar ideas.

The project is designed to encourage primary-level teachers to connect learning experiences to environmental situations. Because agriculture is such an important and familiar part of every rural child's experience, agriculture in project schools will play a very large part in all learning activities. The project aims to improve learning in all subject areas by making it more relevant, improving students' knowledge of and skills in village-level agriculture, and educating young people to more easily fit into community life. All students who leave grade VI should feel equipped with knowledge and skills useful either for village life or further education. The objectives of the programme concern the school, the teachers and the students.

Objectives for the school and community

1. To provide and maintain, in each community school, a school garden based on the pattern of a good subsistence garden of the local area to be used as a teaching resource; and

2. To strengthen the relationship between school and community by involving the community in the school activities and explaining the project aims and objectives to the community.

Objectives for teachers

1. To train teachers to use community resources in their teaching;

2. To train teachers to use the school garden as teaching resource for all subjects;

3. To train teachers to maintain a school teaching garden;

4. To encourage teachers to develop their own ideas to improve their lessons; and

5. To improve teacher initiative, organization and planning.

Objectives for students

1. To preserve and increase students' interest in and respect for local activities and customs, such as gardening;

2. To improve students' skills and knowledge in all subject areas through more interesting and meaningful teaching methods;

3. To improve students' practical gardening skills and knowledge; and

4. To improve students' ability to apply the knowledge and skills gained in subjects such as mathematics and English to practical village situations and problems.

Provincial projects

There are a few projects being carried out by provinces to help develop all aspects of community education:

Provincial Maths Group. In 1983 West New Britain formed a Mathematics Group to improve the standard of maths attainment in schools throughout the province. The Group plans to help primary teachers to better understand the maths syllabus, to devise maths exercises for all grades and maths examinations for the upper grades in particular, and to develop teaching materials in maths for all schools.

Uniform testing system. Learning in community schools is measured in two ways. A grade VI examination is set nationally to determine which students will go on to high school. A second type of examination is set and conducted by teachers as part of their on-going measurement of students' progress in each grade. These teacher tests vary from teacher to teacher and school to school, and need to be made more uniform throughout the provinces. Teachers' testing skills also need to be upgraded.

To address this need, a testing committee was planned for 1983 in Morobe Province to work out details and costs of a uniform testing system. The members of this committee may include community school teachers, high school teachers, teachers' college lecturers, inspectors, officials of the Division of Education and any other interested persons recommended by the Provincial Education Board. The Measurement Services Unit in Port Moresby would provide technical advice.

The testing programme will most likely be phased into the schools in the following way:

Grade V	– 1984
Grade IV	– 1985
Grades II and III	– 1986
Grade I	– 1987

Testing skills for teachers would be worked into the overall programme of in-service training. The cost of the testing system would be included in the subsequent drafts of the Education Plan.

Interpretation of school curricula. Many community school teachers have difficulty in understanding parts of the curriculum and are often confused when the curriculum is changed. At times aspects of the curriculum are changed before they have been fully implemented. Each province has a Curriculum Advisor but in recent years this position has been more a training ground for new inspectors than an advisory unit on curriculum. Teachers need more help with curriculum interpretation if they are expected to pass on the knowledge and skills required in community schools.

Morobe Province plans to provide systematic assistance to teachers in understanding the community school curriculum. Under this plan the Provincial Education Board would review the job description of the Curriculum Advisor so that he would become the co-ordinator of all curriculum matters and assist teachers in areas of difficulty. He would prepare materials and newsletters on curriculum in-service training. The province would request that the National Department of Education mount a training programme for Curriculum Advisors so they could better do their jobs. The Curriculum Advisor would also be given a grant to enable him to travel to schools to discuss curriculum materials with groups of teachers.

Rabaul Public Library. There is a public library in the town of Rabaul. The Division of Education is encouraging the six librarians who work there to go out to community schools and assist teachers to establish school libraries. So far a number of community schools have built separate buildings for libraries. Provincial In-Service Officers are also assisting schools by ordering library books at reasonable prices.

The Film Unit. The Film Unit in Rabaul is beginning to produce educational films for teacher training. It is also copying tapes and storing them for loan to schools and individuals.

Cultural Unit. The Cultural Unit is also printing reading books in local languages for children in lower grades.

Conclusion

Papua New Guinea has not to date made much headway in achieving universal primary education. Access is improving but retention is not, and grave doubts have been expressed in recent years about the quality of achievement of students completing grade VI. A large campaign has been mounted through the Education II programme, the three community education programmes and the new pilot project in agriculture. All officers, from the Secretary for Education down to the classroom teacher, and all parents and community members must now co-operate to ensure that Papua New Guinea can and will achieve universalization of primary education by the end of this century.

APPENDIX

Comparative Statistics, 1970-1983

Table 1. Age-group populations

Year	*7-year-old population*			*7-12-year-old population*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1975	39,176	37,484	76,660	215,217	204,432	419,649
1980	46,549	44,566	91,115	256,743	241,743	498,486
1983	47,315	43,183	90,498	268,083	248,005	516,088

Table 2. Primary education institutions

Year	*Number of Schools*	*Enrolment*			*Number of teachers*
		Boys	*Girls*	*Total*	
1960	1,187	–	–	88,696	–
1965	1,814	111,266	70,981	182,247	–
1970	1,620	131,885	76,534	208,419	6,606
1975	1,762	149,303	89,015	238,318	7,544
1980	2,045	167,077	118,073	285,150	9,063
1983	2,272	185,763	141,251	327,014	10,307

Table 3. Girls enrolled in grade I

Year	*Girls enrolled in grade I*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group girls enrolled*
1965	16,954	Not Available	–
1970	16,951	Not Available	–
1975	19,700	37,484	52.6
1980	26,561	44,566	59.6
1983	33,600	43,183	77.8

Table 3A. Girls enrolled in grades I-VI

Year	*Girls enrolled in grade I-VI*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group girls enrolled*
1965	70,981	Not Available	–
1970	76,534	Not Available	–
1975	89,015	204,432	43.5
1980	118,073	241,743	48.8
1983	141,251	248,005	57.0

Table 3B. Percentage growth rate in enrolment of girls over five-year periods

Period	*Enrolment at beginning*	*Enrolment at end*	*Total growth*	*Average yearly growth*
1965-1970	70,981	76,534	7.8%	1.6%
1970-1975	76,534	89,015	16.3%	3.3%
1975-1980	89,015	118,073	32.6%	6.5%
1980-1983	118,073	141,251	19.6%	6.5%

Table 4. Boys enrolled in grade I

Year	*Boys enrolled in grade I*	*Age-group boys in population*	*Percentage of age-group boys enrolled*
1965	24,604	Not Available	–
1970	27,765	Not Available	–
1975	32,212	39,176	82.2
1980	35,604	46,549	76.5
1983	42,746	47,315	90.0

Table 4A. Boys enrolled in grades I-VI

Year	*Boys enrolled in grades I-VI*	*Age-group boys in population*	*Percentage of age-group boys enrolled*
1965	111,266	Not Available	–
1970	131,885	Not Available	–
1975	149,303	215,217	69.4
1980	167,077	256,743	65.1
1983	185,763	268,083	69.3

Table 4B. Percentage growth-rate in enrolment of boys over five-year periods

Period	*Enrolment at beginning*	*Enrolment at end*	*Total growth*	*Average yearly growth*
1965-1970	111,266	131,885	18.5%	3.7%
1970-1975	131,885	149,303	13.2%	2.6%
1975-1980	149,303	167,077	11.9%	2.4%
1980-1983	167,077	185,763	11.2%	3.7%

Table 5. Total enrolment in grade I

Year	*Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*
1965	41,558	Not Available	–
1970	44,716	Not Available	–
1975	51,912	76,660	67.7
1980	62,165	91,115	68.2
1983	76,346	90,498	84.4

Table 5A. Total enrolment in grades I-VI

Year	*Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage of age-group population enrolled*
1965	182,247	Not Available	–
1970	208,419	Not Available	–
1975	238,318	419,649	56.8
1980	285,150	498,486	57.2
1983	327,014	516,088	63.4

Table 5B. Percentage growth-rate in total enrolment over five-year periods

Period	*Enrolment at beginning*	*Enrolment at end*	*Total growth*	*Average yearly growth*
1965-1970	182,247	208,419	14.4%	2.9%
1970-1975	208,419	238,318	14.3%	2.9%
1975-1980	238,318	285,150	19.6%	3.9%
1980-1983	285,150	327,014	14.7%	4.9%

Table 6. Teacher student ratios

Year	*Average number of students per school*	*Average number of students per teacher*	*Average number of teachers per school*
1965	100.5	Not Available	Not Available
1970	128.7	31.5	4.1
1975	135.3	31.6	4.3
1980	139.4	31.5	4.4
1983	143.9	31.7	4.5

Notes to Tables

1. *Tables 3-4B*

Until 1970 the growth rate for boys in school exceeded that of girls. Since then, however, much attention has been paid to the enrolment of girls. From 1975 to 1980 the growth rate for girls in school was nearly double that of the birth rate for girls in the country. The overall growth in schools just equalled the overall birth rate. This meant, that enrolment of boys did not equal their birth rate in growth. For a long period there was no improvement in the percentage of the school age population attending school. The larger percentage of total primary enrolment for 1983 is mainly due to new census figures that showed that the birth rate was not as high as anticipated. Projected populations between 1970 and 1982 were higher than actual populations, and this has led to the increase in the most recent figures.

2. *Table 6*

The average class size, or teacher:student ratio, has remained very constant. This is disappointing for purposes of universalization of primary education, which will not be achieved unless class sizes grow due to children being retained in school and the drop out rate decreasing noticeably.

Schools have not grown much in average size, even though most of them now include grades I-VI. Again, the drop-out rate has affected school size. The average number of teachers per school is steadily growing due to the blocking up of schools with grades I-VI, but will rise slowly because of the number of small schools in sparsely populated areas and much multiple class teaching.

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

PHILIPPINES

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Chapter One

THE PRIMARY EDUCATION SYSTEM IN THE PHILIPPINES

The development of primary education

The present educational system in the Philippines evolved through a long process. Notable changes took place during the colonial period and continued long after the country gained independence.

Pre-colonial period. The early Filipinos had no organized system of education but they could read and write. Their language has been identified with the Indonesian family of tongues, although a number of dialects were spoken. Their alphabet came from the ancient Malayans and was later influenced by Sanskrit. A great majority of the pre-Spanish Filipinos acquired their knowledge of reading and writing through songs and poems, and much of this oral literature has been preserved.

Laws were handed down from generation to generation through family records and written records issued by the *datus*, or chiefs. The traditions and customs of these early communities were transmitted orally from parents to children. Ways of earning a living were taught in the home by fathers to their sons and mothers to their daughters.

Colonial period. Education in the Philippines during this period, which lasted for more than four hundred years, was an instrument of colonial policy. Each sovereign power designed a school system to propagate its own ideals: Spain hoped to spread the teaching of Christianity; America, believed to train the people for democracy; and Japan, to draw the Filipinos into a Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.

The Spanish regime (1500s - 1898). During the period of Spanish rule Agustinian, Franciscan, Jesuit, Dominican and Recollect missionaries arrived in the Philippines in succession and organized parochial schools. The method of learning in these schools was largely memorization. The curriculum consisted of reading by the syllable method, sacred songs and music, and a little arithmetic and writing. Spanish was taught to the most promising pupils.

A landmark in the educational history of this time was the Educational Decree of 1863, which established a uniform course of study for primary schools, made provision for the training of teachers and placed all schools under government supervision and control. The Reform Act of the same period provided for a complete system of elementary, secondary, and college-level education, and for the opening of primary schools in all towns in the country. The University of Santo Tomas, girls' and boys' colleges, conciliar seminaries, private secondary schools and vocational and nautical schools were established at this time. Normal schools were opened to train teachers for elementary schools.

The subjects offered at the elementary level were reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history and Christian doctrine, Spanish, vocal music, agriculture for boys and needlework for girls. Attendance was compulsory for children aged from seven to twelve. No school fees were charged and pupils were provided with textbooks and other school materials. The language of instruction at all levels was Spanish.

Supervision and control of the entire school system was handled by the Junta de Gobierno and the Junta Administradora del Material de Escuelas. The Superior Governor of the Islands and the Superior Commission of Primary Instruction exercised full control over the inspection of primary schools. In every municipality, primary schools were under the supervision of the parish priest. The schools were also supervised on the provincial level by the governor with the assistance of the diocesan prelate and the administrator of revenues.

American rule (1898-1934). The first American public schools in the Philippines were established by the American Army occupying Manila in the early twentieth century. American teachers not only taught but also helped train Filipinos to teach the growing student population. These students were later assigned as teachers of the lower classes.

More and more schools were established in Manila and in the provinces. In 1900 Captain Albert Todd became Superintendent of Schools for the Philippine Islands, and recommended the establishment of a comprehensive modern educational system and the use of English as the language of instruction. Captain Todd's successor was Dr. Fred Atkinson, who set up a system of free public education. The regulation of the private schools remained the jurisdiction of the religious orders.

Schools organized during the military regime lacked equipment, textbooks, and instructional materials and facilities. Instruction was poor due to lack of trained teachers. When a civil government was established on 4 July 1901, a Department of Education was one of the executive departments. The development of the educational system in the Philippines under the Civil Government may be divided into four periods.

a) The first expansion period (1901-1910). The demand for trained teachers was met through the establishment of the Philippine Normal School in 1901. It was also during this year that the School of Arts and Trade was established. In 1902 the Bureau of Education was established. Because of a tremendous increase in enrolment every school year, private schools were opened to accommodate pupils who could not be admitted in public schools. The Office of the Superintendent of Private Schools under the Department of Public Instruction was created in 1910. It supervised private schools all over the Philippines.

In 1908 the establishment of the University of the Philippines completed the public school system of the country. It was also during this period that the foundation of the present curriculum was laid, and the Gabaldon Act allocated one million pesos from the national budget for the construction of schools.

b) The adjustment period (1911-1918). This period was marked by improvements in the teaching force and physical facilities. Vocational instruction was systematized and teaching, trade, business, farming, domestic science and agriculture were added to general education in the curriculum. Work education was included in the intermediate curriculum and physical education was emphasized through athletic programmes.

More private schools were established during this time and a law was passed in 1917 to make government inspection and supervision of private schools obligatory. This law empowered the Secretary of Private Instruction to revoke official recognition of substandard institutions.

c) The second expansion period (1919-1922). At this time, almost all applicants for teaching positions were employed by the Bureau of Education. There was a tremendous growth in the number of private schools. The Far Eastern University was established. Act No. 2957 created the Board of Textbooks to oversee selection of textbooks for the public schools.

d) The adaptation period (1924-1936). This period was marked by efforts to evaluate the performance of private and public schools. The Monroe Survey of 1925 attempted to evaluate the almost 25-year-old educational system. Headed by Paul Monroe, the survey team looked into the administration and curriculum of elementary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and church-run and non-denominational private schools, and the education of the cultural minorities. As a result of the findings, many classes in the public schools were closed. Efforts were made to improve the quality of the teaching force and the methods of instruction used in schools. The Quezon Educational Survey in 1935 also studied the strengths and weaknesses of the Philippine educational system.

The Commonwealth period (1936-1942). Significant developments contributed to the progress of the educational system during the Commonwealth period. Educational plans and policies were reoriented to carry out the mandate of the Constitution for the revision of the elementary and secondary school curricula. Emphasis was given to character education and citizenship training, and vocational subjects were introduced in the general secondary curriculum.

The results of the Joint Educational Survey conducted in 1939 indicated serious problems of accomodation. The survey data were used as the basis for the enactment of the Education Act of 1940. This act provided for the complete revision of the public elementary school system. It abolished grade VII and reduced the elementary programme to only six years. Exclusive private schools, however, retained primary grade VII. To address the problem of inadequate staffing and facilities, the double-single-session was introduced to allow one teacher to handle two classes, one in the morning and another in the afternoon. To a certain extent these measures helped to solve the school crisis up to 1941, but the quality of educational outcomes was adversely affected.

The Japanese occupation (1942-1945). Immediately after the Japanese Army occupied the country in 1942, the Japanese High

Command took steps to revise the educational system. New elementary schools and other educational institutions were opened. The new curricula of the elementary and secondary schools included Japanese, social science, industrial arts, household arts, elementary science and preparatory military training. The national language, Tagalog, which had been made part of the curriculum in 1941, continued to be taught in all schools, colleges and universities. Japanese culture was also introduced to school children.

During these three years many parents refused to send their children to school because of the uncertainty of the times. After the end of the Second World War in 1945, thousands of out-of-school children had to be accommodated in the schools and the system had to be rehabilitated and expanded.

Post-Independence. There was a continuous increase in the number of schools in the country after Independence in 1946. The government, or public, schools included those under the Bureau of Public Schools, those under the Bureau of Vocational Education, and the chartered colleges and universities. The non-government or private schools were either sectarian or non-secretarian and were supervised by the Bureau of Private Schools. They were registered as stock, non-stock or foundation corporations. In 1966 a school building programme for public elementary schools was started.

A number of educational surveys were made to improve the school system in accordance with the demands of an expanding and changing society. Among these were the Swanson Survey in 1960 and the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education in 1970.

The establishment of the New Society in 1972 brought about radical changes in the country's educational system. Education was seen as a powerful tool for social stability and progress. The Educational Development Decree of 1972, emphasized the role of education in national development and as a result of this legislation a 10-year national education development programme was formulated.

In 1975 a Survey of Outcomes of Elementary Education (SOUTELE) was conducted. It led to a number of educational reforms, including the upgrading of salaries for teachers and other school officials; the improvement of depressed, disadvantaged and underserved schools; a "return to the basics", and massive retraining of teachers.

In the 1980s the Government of the Philippines is committed to a massive educational reorientation. Attempts are being made to equalize educational opportunity in the 13 regions of the country, to increase primary enrolment and retention and improve the overall efficiency of the primary education system.

In 1981 the Programme for Decentralized Educational Development (PRODED) was launched to upgrade primary education and redress regional disparities in education. Assisted by the World Bank, PRODED is a four-year programme to increase pupil participation and retention rates and improve achievement. It has five components: civil works, staff development, physical facilities development, curriculum development and technical assistance.

PRODED is part of the country's 10-year Programme for Comprehensive Elementary Education (PROCEED) initiated in 1979. PROCEED will continue the activities of PRODED when the latter is phased out in 1985. PROCEED adds to the PRODED components a school-based health programme, pre-school education and a financing scheme for elementary education.

Educational legislation

The legal basis and mainspring of educational programmes and activities in the Philippines derive from fiats, laws and documents of both national and international origin. Pertinent portions of these statutes are cited in this section.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Worldwide concern for the educational condition of the most vulnerable population groups is shown in the United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Articles 26 and 27 guarantee the right of every individual to education and to free participation in cultural, artistic and scientific life.

Universal Declaration of the Rights of the Child. The United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Child states the following principles:

"The child shall enjoy special protection and shall be given opportunities and facilities, by law and by other means, to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in a condition of freedom and dignity. In the enactment of laws for this purpose, the best interest of the child shall be the paramount consideration.

The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him on a basis of equal opportunities to develop his abilities, his individual judgment, and his sense of moral and social responsibility to become a useful member of society".

The Philippine Constitution of 1973. The Declaration of Principles and State Policies of the Philippine Constitution includes the following provisions:

The State shall strengthen the family as a basic social institution. The natural right and duty of parents in the rearing of the youth for civic efficiency and the development of moral character shall receive the aid and support of the government.

The State recognizes the vital role of youth in nation-building and shall promote their physical, intellectual and social well-being.

The State shall establish, maintain, and ensure adequate social services in the fields of education, health, housing, employment, welfare and social security to guarantee the enjoyment by the people of a decent standard of living.

All educational institutions shall aim to inculcate love of country, teach the duties of citizenship and develop moral character, personal discipline and scientific, technological, and vocational efficiency.

The State is directed to:

Maintain a system of free public elementary education and, in areas where finances permit, establish and maintain a system of free public education at least up to the seconday level.

Educational Development Decree of 1972. This document calls for improvements in the educational system to achieve and maintain an accelerating rate of economic development and social progress, to assure the maximum participation of all the people in the attainment and enjoyment of the benefits of such growth; and to achieve and strengthen national unity and consciousness and preserve, develop and promote desirable cultural, moral and spiritual values in a changing world.

Presidential Decree No. 603. More popularly known as the Child and Youth Welfare Code, this Decree rules that:

Every child has the right to an education commensurate with his abilities and to the development of his skills for the improvement of his capacity for service to himself and his fellowmen and that the child, in turn, has a responsibility to undergo formal education so that he will become an asset to society.

The Education Act of 1982. This document provides the legal basis for the country's educational development plan. Section 3 sets out the Government's responsibilities regarding education.

It is the policy of the State to establish and maintain a complete, adequate and integrated system of education relevant to the goals of national development. Toward this end, the Government shall ensure within the context of a free and democratic system maximum contribution of the educational system to the attainment of national goals.

The State shall promote the right of every individual to relevant quality education, regardless of sex, age, creed, socio-economic status, physical or mental condition, racial or ethnic origin, or political or other affiliation. The State shall promote and maintain access to education as well as the enjoyment of its benefits by all citizens.

The State shall promote the right of the nation's cultural communities in the exercise of their rights to develop themselves within the context of their cultures, customs, traditions, interests and beliefs, and recognize education as an instrument for their maximum participation in national development and in ensuring their involvement in achieving national unity.

National law requires that all parents enroll their children in school at the age of seven, or six and a half if they have attended pre-school. The Government provides free tuition and textbooks in public schools and allows private primary schools to operate if they meet set standards.

Presidential Decree No. 1139. Educational opportunities were made available to young people and adults not served by the formal school system through this Decree of 1977. It created the position of Deputy Minister of Education, Culture and Sports, who is charged with the national Non-formal Education programme.

All these policies have provided direction to the educational system in reaching out to all school-age children in order to make them members of the national society.

Organization of the school system

The formal education system. Formal education in the Philippines starts when a child is seven years old; and involves six years of elementary education from grades I-VI, four years of secondary education and from four to eight years of college education. Primary education in this report refers to the first four years of elementary education, from grades I-IV. Pre-school education is not a part of the formal educational system, but schools are encouraged to organize such classes if funds permit. Most pre-school classes are operated by private schools and civic organizations.

Two types of schools exist in the Philippines, public and private. The public schools are organized and maintained by the government, while the private schools are organized and maintained by private individuals or corporations. Most of the elementary schools in the country are public schools. However, at the secondary and tertiary levels, a greater number are owned and managed by the private sector.

The government does not give the private schools any direct financial aid except for small grants disbursed by the Fund for Assistance to Private Education for special projects. Approximately 5.22 per cent of the elementary school population and 45.8 per cent of secondary pupils are enrolled in the private schools. These schools follow the public school curriculum required by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports, but are allowed to propose additional subjects that they feel are needed by the type of students entering their schools.

Non-formal education. Non-formal education was part of the Philippine educational system long before the promulgation of Presidential Decree 1139. In 1935 Commonwealth Act No. 80

created the Office of Adult Education in order to provide citizenship training to youths and adults.

More recently, in recognition of the fact that education cannot only be equated with schooling and that it is neither time-bound nor place-bound, the Educational Act of 1982 established the Bureau of Continuing Education to complement and supplement formal education.

Non-formal Education (NFE) in the Philippines is concerned with functional literacy, basic vocational training, citizenship education, socio-cultural development, physical fitness and leadership. The NFE programmes are implemented through the formal school system by government and non-government organizations. Administrative services, classrooms, equipment and supplies are shared by the formal and non-formal systems.

Folk schools were organized as early as 1961 to motivate out-of-school children to return to school and learn vocational skills as well as academic subjects. These schools operate for six or seven weeks during the summer.

A study conducted by the National Educational Testing Centre on Literacy Retention among Drop-Outs from Philippine Elementary Schools found that the learning process does not stop after a student drops out of the formal education system, that drop-outs retain and even gain basic skills, and that command of basic skills acquired in school declined at a rate highly dependent on the amount of previous formal schooling.

These and other findings indicate that a strong linkage is imperative between formal and non-formal systems. To help create such a linkage and to democratize education at all levels, The Accreditation and Equivalency Board (created in 1981) evaluates skills, knowledge and experience acquired through non-formal and informal means to allow students to enter or re-enter the formal system. The Board provides testing for children who have dropped out, who have never enrolled and who are overage for their grade level.

Administration and supervision

Administrative structure of the educational system. The Philippine Constitution provides for an integrated educational system. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports (MECS) is headed by the Minister, who exercises control over all the agencies of the Ministry. This body is entrusted with planning, developing and implementing programmes in education and culture, administering the public school system in the Philippines and co-ordinating activities related to the educational and cultural development of national minorities.

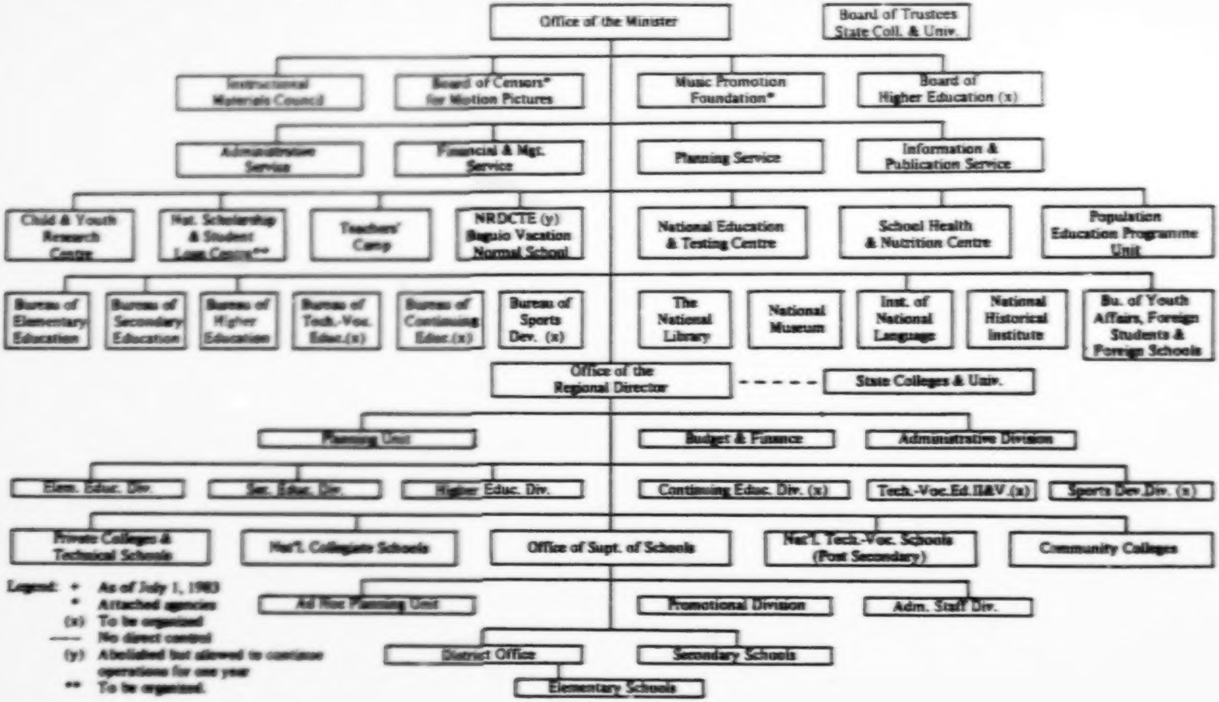
The Ministry is divided into two sub-structures, central and regional. An outline of the organizational structure is found on the next page.

In the central substructure, the Ministry has three deputy ministers, one in charge of administrative matters, another for programmes and projects, and another for non-formal education. The central office of the Ministry (OMECS) includes the following bodies that assist in policy formulation and programme implementation:

Staff bureaus. The bureaus of the Ministry exercise functional supervision over the regional and field offices and develop plans and programmes within their respective specialization. The Bureau of Elementary Education conducts studies, formulates educational objectives and provides technical assistance to the Ministry on matters pertaining to pre-school and elementary education. Its work includes curriculum design, materials preparation, staff training and improvement of school plants and equipment. This Bureau co-ordinates closely with the Planning Service and regional and provincial/city offices of the Ministry.

Cultural agencies. The Institute of National Language, National Library, National Museum and the National Historical Institute perform staff and line functions within the Ministry. Whenever these line agencies undertake field work, they co-ordinate with the regional offices. The National Historical Institute is responsible for promoting and preserving the Philippine cultural heritage by undertaking studies of Philippine history and national heroes and maintaining national shrines and monuments. The Institute of National Language updates Pilipino grammar and publishes reference books to propagate the national language. Its staff designs language policies in line with the educational, social and economic development of the nation. The National Library provides facilities to meet the information needs of scholars and students. The National

Figure 1. Organization of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports


Office of the Minister
Board of Trustees State Coll. & Univ.
Instructional Materials Council
Board of Censors* for Motion Pictures
Music Promotion Foundation*
Board of Higher Education (x)
Administrative Service
Financial & Mgt. Service
Planning Service
Information & Publication Service
Child & Youth Research Centre
Nat. Scholarship & Student Loan Centre**
Teachers' Camp
NRDCTE (y) Baguio Vacation Normal School
National Education & Testing Centre
School Health & Nutrition Centre
Population Education Programme Unit
Bureau of Elementary Education
Bureau of Secondary Education
Bureau of Higher Education
Bureau of Tech.-Voc. Educ.(x)
Bureau of Continuing Educ.(x)
Bureau of Sports Dev. (x)
The National Library
National Museum
Inst. of National Language
National Historical Institute
Bu. of Youth Affairs, Foreign Students & Foreign Schools
Office of the Regional Director
State Colleges & Univ.
Planning Unit
Budget & Finance
Administrative Division
Elem. Educ. Div.
Sec. Educ. Div.
Higher Educ. Div.
Continuing Educ. Div. (x)
Tech.-Voc.Ed.II&V.(x)
Sports Dev.Div. (x)
Private Colleges & Technical Schools
Nat'l. Collegiate Schools
Office of Supt. of Schools
Nat'l. Tech.-Voc. Schools (Post Secondary)
Community Colleges
Ad Hoc Planning Unit
Promotional Division
Adm. Staff Div.
District Office
Secondary Schools
Elementary Schools
Legend: + As of July 1, 1983
* Attached agencies
(x) To be organized
—— No direct control
(y) Abolished but allowed to continue operations for one year
** To be organized.

Museum protects Philippine cultural properties and interprets scientific discoveries through lectures and exhibits.

Other special bodies. Under the Ministry there are three service offices, each headed by an assistant secretary equal in rank to a bureau and regional director. The Planning Service is responsible for economical and effective planning, programming, and project development. The Financial and Management Service provides advice and assistance on budgetary, financial and management matters. The Administrative Service facilitates efficient educational administration.

The Child and Youth Research Centre studies the developmental needs and characteristics of Filipino children. Results of this research will be used in the planning, evaluation and implementation of educational programmes. The National Scholarship Centre awards scholarships to poor and deserving students. It also channels physically handicapped students into skills training courses relevant to the manpower needs of the country. The National Educational Loan Assistance Centre carries out the Study-Now-Pay-Later-Plan, otherwise known as the Educational Assistance Act of 1976 by enabling financially disadvantaged citizens to pursue higher education and training in fields of study vital to the development of the national economy. The National Research and Development Centre for Teacher Education was formed in 1972 to replace the Unesco-funded Asian Institute for Teacher Educators. The basic function of the Centre is the improvement of the quality of teacher education. It supervises the Baguio Vacation Normal School, which offers teachers from all over the country degree and non-degree training courses. An Instructional Materials Council is responsible for the formulation of policy on the adoption and selection of textbooks, supplementary and reference books, manuals and printed materials for use in the public elementary and secondary schools. Until budgetary provisions are made for this Council, however, its functions will be discharged by the Textbook Board. The School Health and Nutrition Centre acts as the Secretariat of the Mindanao School Supplementary Feeding Programme Task Force in addition to its basic responsibility of implementing the school supplementary feeding programme. The National Educational Testing Centre carries out the measurement and evaluation functions of the Ministry.

In the regional substructure there are 13 regional offices, each headed by a regional director and an assistant regional director who report directly to the Minister of Education, Culture and Sports. These regional offices each have administrative, finance and budget, elementary, secondary and higher education divisions, a system that is intended to make education more responsive to local needs.

A region consists of provincial and city educational divisions, and these are in turn divided into school districts. Under the regional offices there are 126 divisions, each headed by a division superintendent. Under the school divisions are the district offices headed by district supervisors, and under them are the school principals and teachers.

While the regional offices are directly responsible to the Minister, their technical supervision is exercised by the staff bureaus. Assistant secretaries for planning, administration and finance assist the Minister and his deputies in their administrative functions. There are also assistant secretaries for personnel development, co-ordination of state colleges and universities and for educational legislation.

Supervision of primary schools. On the national level, supervision of primary schools is delegated by the Minister of Education, Sports and Culture to the Bureau of Elementary Education. At the regional level, the regional supervisors and their staff supervise primary instruction. At the divisional level, school supervision is a function of the division superintendent, the assistant superintendent, and the division supervisors. At the district level, the district supervisors, principals and in some cases assistant principals are responsible for supervising the primary schools.

The duties of the division superintendents include supervision, administration and public relations. The supervisory functions are concerned with the improvement of instruction. The superintendents may personally supervise classroom instruction, but generally delegate this task to division and district supervisors and principals.

Some division supervisors are charged with supervision of instruction in specific subjects. In larger divisions like the City of Manila there is more than one supervisor for each subject area. Subject supervisors are also responsible for planning, implementing and evaluating special programmes such as special education or community education.

District supervisors come from the ranks of principals, head teachers and other officials. They are responsible for the supervision of schools in their districts and co-ordination with the functions of other agencies promoting socio-economic development.

The division and district supervisors and school administrators check teachers' lesson plans to assess their daily preparation, and to determine whether methods and materials achieve learning objectives. They observe class activities to determine the progress of the pupils, and may direct the preparation and administration of tests.

The primary duty of the division and district supervisors is supervision of instruction, although the district supervisor must also monitor physical aspects of the school and other administrative functions. The principal's main duties are mainly administrative, but he is also concerned with the supervision of instruction.

Since all schools are subject to regulation by the State, the Government has placed the supervision of two-level private schools (those with elementary and secondary levels) under the division superintendents, and three-level private schools (those with elementary, secondary and tertiary levels) directly under the Regional Office, in order to ensure that desirable standards of instruction are maintained in all educational levels.

The geographical characteristics of the Philippines, which consist of 7,100 islands, make administration and supervision of the total educational system exceedingly challenging. The decentralization described has helped to meet this challenge, but it is not totally without problems.

Planning of primary education. Planning of primary education is carried out at the national level by the Bureau of Elementary Education with the assistance of the Office of Planning Service of the Ministry. This Bureau formulates educational standards for pre-school and elementary education. It undertakes studies for the preparation of curriculum, instructional materials and teacher training programmes, writes guidelines for elementary school physical facilities; and develops plans to upgrade the quality of education and the general management of schools. The directions, guidelines and targets set by the Bureau are provided to the regions as a basis for the planning of primary education at their level.

Planning of regional primary education is shared by the 13 regional offices. Each regional office includes primary education and planning units, and regional plans and programmes are submitted to the Ministry for incorporation in its overall programme.

On the division level, the division planning unit develops projects in line with the objectives and policies set by the regional offices and the Ministry. These proposals are submitted for approval and/or incorporation in the overall programme of the region.

The lowest planning unit is the school district. Plans for elementary education at this level are submitted to the division for incorporation in the division plan.

Since the Central Office sets policies and guidelines for the regions, divisions and districts to follow, and these levels submit their plans to the central organization, for incorporation in national plans, planning of elementary education moves from top to bottom and from bottom to top.

Curriculum and instruction. The development of the primary curriculum is initiated by the Ministry through the Bureau of Elementary Education, which in turn seeks input from field staff in both public and private schools, parents, community leaders, local agencies and experts in various disciplines. The curriculum is planned within the context of national development goals and the cultural, social and educational norms of society. Final approval of the Minister is necessary before the curriculum is implemented and instructional materials are prepared.

The Bureau of Elementary Education determines minimum learning competencies to be used in interpreting the curriculum. Supervisors, principals and teachers are allowed to make necessary adaptations in the minimum learning competencies to make the curriculum functional and relevant to local needs.

Schools are provided with instructional materials purchased by superintendents in accordance with existing regulations. Principals send their requisitions through the district supervisor to the superintendent, and see to it that their school libraries are adequately stocked from the approved lists of reference and other reading materials sent to the field.

Teaching staff

Education and training. Teaching today is a highly specialized profession, and teacher education is a basic ingredient of a comprehensive, effective and dynamic educational system. The education of primary teachers in the Philippines is undertaken jointly by the 348 state and private colleges and universities offering teacher education programmes.

Secondary school graduates seeking admission to teacher education schools, colleges, and universities must pass a National College Entrance Examination and admission tests of the respective institutions. All applicants are required to fall within the upper 50 percentile of their graduating classes.

All public and private teacher training institutions follow the curriculum prescribed by the Ministry, and syllabi are developed by the faculty. The curriculum is drafted by the curriculum committee or dean of a college, and then submitted to the faculty for approval. For a state university or college, the Board of Regents gives final approval, while for private colleges it is the Minister of Education.

The primary teacher education curriculum includes general education, courses covering all the subjects taught in primary school, professional courses in philosophy, educational history, psychology and teaching methods, and a sequence of laboratory experiences with children that culminates in supervised teaching.

The professional in-service course beginning in 1983 consisted of the following subject areas in the first year:

General Education – 21 units*. This group consists of Pilipino; science and health; mathematics; humanities; special sciences; home economics and practical arts.

Professional Education – 30 units. This group consists of sociology, psychology, anthropology, philosophy and law, principles of teaching and educational technology, measurement and evaluation, guidance and counselling, teaching strategies in Communication Arts, civics and culture, science and mathematics, health, physical education, and student teaching.

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* One unit equals three hours a week for one semester.

Physical education – 4 units

Citizens military training – 6 units

Emphasis is placed on the child as a learner in both general and professional courses. Guidance and counselling includes an introduction to special education. Communication Arts includes children's literature and materials from varied ethnic sources. Specialization courses are also available in such areas as kindergarten education, music, art and physical education. Those who complete this four-year course receive the Bachelor of Elementary Education degree.

Teacher certification. In the Philippines there is no requirement that a teacher must be licensed to teach. Certification and permanent appointment in the public schools are given to teachers who pass the examination of the Professional Board of Examination for Teachers, a civil service requirement. Teachers in private schools are also required to pass this examination.

For teacher applicants in the kindergarten and elementary grades, a bachelor's degree in elementary education constitutes the minimum educational qualification. In the case of applicants who do not possess this minimum qualification, the school superintendent may make temporary appointments. Once an applicant has acquired adequate training and professional preparation in a school recognized by the government, and is eligible for civil service employment, no probationary period is imposed. An applicant who lacks civil service eligibility is given provisional status for not less than one year. Teachers with provisional appointments are granted permanent appointment after ten years of service.

There is a shortage of qualified primary school teachers in some parts of the country. Many schools, especially in remote areas of Mindanao, are partly staffed by undergraduates or unqualified teachers. To solve this problem, the Notre Dame Educational Association has developed an educational programme to train para-teachers to work among cultural minority communities in Region

XII and South Cotabato. This innovative programme is non-degree and lasts 26 months. Para-teacher candidates range from elementary graduates to college drop-outs. The curriculum consists of a developmental-remedial phase to equip students with the necessary communication and computation skills, the content of the educational curriculum, culture and psychology to sensitize para-teachers to their own and their pupils' cultures and a practicum in their own communities. While working with master teachers, the students acquire competency in classroom management and community work equivalent to that of full teachers.

The increased cost of living and the low salary of teachers have forced many teachers to seek higher-paying jobs or employment in other countries. Because of teachers' low salaries, teacher training institutions do not attract the best graduates from secondary schools. The Government has raised the salary of public school teachers from about ₱ 750 to about ₱ 1000 (a little less than $100) a month, and included living allowance, clothing allowance and longevity pay in the teacher welfare-improvement package. These incentives have encouraged enrolment in teacher education institutions.

In-service teacher training. Every effort is made to improve the quality of primary education through in-service training. The Bureau of Elementary Education and the Office of Personnel Development operate in-service programmes in the Baguio Vacation Normal School for teachers and school officials.

The Educational Reorientation Programme (ERP) is the staff development component of the Programme for Decentralized Educational Development (PRODED) a World Bank - funded project that started in June 1981. PRODED's objectives are a reduction in regional disparities in pupil performance and an improvement in the management of the elementary education system. Some of the activities of the ERP are a Teacher-Formation Programme, the training of Ministry staff in support of classroom teachers and the development of a corps of teacher training managers at the regional and sub-regional levels.

PRODED-ERP consists of a formal one-week seminar in interpersonal and organizational skills, and a non-formal two-year staff training to be carried out by the participants themselves with instructional materials distributed by the programme. A network of learning-action cells (LACs) of primary school teachers is another training strategy of PRODED-ERP.

Each level of increase in educational qualifications increases chances for teacher promotion or for upgrading in salary. Degree and non-degree programmes enable teachers to enhance their professional status and keep abreast of the latest trends in education. The Integrated Scholarship Programme in a few state colleges and universities helps teachers pursue in-service education at the graduate level. One private university, the Ateneo University, offers a scholarship programme for teachers in Metro Manila, but an impressive number of teachers and administrators attend graduate school at their own expense, in the evening or on Saturdays. A pilot distance study system for both graduate and undergraduate work in education is being implemented by the Ministry and the University of life. The system provides for self-instruction through modules and a few contract sessions.

Curriculum

One significant development in primary education in the Philippines was the launching of the New Elementary School Curriculum (NESC) in the 1983-1984 school year. The NESC emphasizes basic skills and orients primary education to national development. A "return to the basics", its dominant thrust is the development of Filipinism and humanism among primary school children. The NESC is an outcome-oriented rather than a subject-centred curriculum, and requires new technology and materials.

Table 2 outlines the NESC curriculum.

Special features of this curriculum include an emphasis on mastery learning, more time allotted to the development of the basic skills, especially in the lower grades, and a focus on the development of a sense of humanity and nationhood in all learning areas. To ensure the smooth implementation of the NESC, a Monitoring, Supervision and Assistance Team will visit schools in the regions.

Table 2. The New Elementary School Curriculum

Learning areas	*Weekly time allotment*					
	Grades					
	I	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*
Character-Building Activities	100-150	100-150	100	100	100	100
Pilipino	300	300	300	300	300	300
English	300	300	300	300	300	300
Mathematics	200	200	200	–	200	200
Civics and Culture (hist./geoy./work ethic.)	200	200	200	–	–	–
History/geography/civics			–	200	200	200
Science and health			200	200	200	200
Arts and physical educ.			200	200	200	200
Home economics Livelihood and Education				200	300	300
Minutes per week	1100-1150	1100-1150	1500	1700	1800	1800
Minutes per day	220-230	220-230	300	340	360	360
Hours per day*	3-40"-4	3-40"-4	5	5-40"	6	6

* According to the ' Magna Carta for Public School Teachers", the minimum work load of teachers is six hours per day. In the intermediate grades where there is a 5-3 or 3-2 ratio of teachers to classes, the schedule shall be worked out so that no teacher shall be assigned more than 360 minutes of teaching a day.

Textbooks and instructional materials

Ministry Textbook Project. From the 1950s until 1975, there was only one textbook for every ten pupils in the public schools. The textbooks were not only in short supply but also in poor condition and educationally substandard. Since the availability of textbooks is a significant factor in pupils' achievement, the Ministry's Educational Development Projects Implementation Task Force undertook an eight-year textbook development and distribution programme to solve the perennial textbook crisis. The Textbook Board Secretariat was established to take over the management of the Project in 1981.

Financed by a World Bank loan of $25 million and a government matching fund, Phase I of the Textbook Project was launched in 1976 to increase the supply of textbooks during the following four years and to develop the institutional capacity for continuous provision of textbooks. The Project called for the development of 109 textbooks and teacher's manuals for science, mathematics, social studies, Pilipino and English in the public elementary and secondary schools; the distribution of 92 million textbooks to provide one textbook for every two pupils in each subject and grade level; and the training of 250,000 teachers on the effective use of the new textbooks. To ensure the continuous supply of textbooks, agencies and linkages for planning, publishing, distribution and evaluation were established.

Four government curriculum development centres were linked with the Bureau of Elementary Education and the Bureau of Secondary Education to develop textbooks in various subjects. These included the University of the Philippines Science Education Centre for mathematics and science, the Philippine Normal College Language Study Centre for language arts, the Ministry Social Studies Centre for social studies and the Technological University of the Philippines Practical Arts Centre for teaching guides in the practical arts.

The Ministry's network, for textbook distribution has been activated and improved. Some 100 provincial warehouses were renovated and equipped, and 42 new ones built to handle the distribution of millions of textbooks.

To train teachers and administrators in the effective use of the new textbooks, 14 Regional Staff Development Centres and 34 Development High Schools were established. Project staff and curriculum writers, in close co-operation with national and regional education officials, have held annual orientation programmes for 315,000 teachers and school administrators. The Project also evaluates the impact of the textbooks on the learning achievement of pupils.

The Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports controls the quality of textbooks, instructional materials, supplementary readers, reference books, teaching aids and devices used in the primary schools through the Textbook Board and the Committee on Evaluation of Instructional Materials.

The Textbook Board. This Board calls for the submission of manuscripts for textbooks from qualified writers and duly-registered publishers on a competitive basis. Every textbook submission must include a teacher's guide. A manuscript found acceptable by the Board is given a preliminary approval. The publisher or writer tests the material in at least 12 representative schools in the country in accordance with guidelines set by the Board. After recommended revisions indicated by these field tests, the manuscript is submitted to the Board for final approval. The Board evaluates the manuscripts according to content (60 points), teaching strategies (30 points) and physical aspects (10 points).

Government-produced textbooks, including those prepared by the curriculum development centres, are automatically adopted by the Board but must be developed and tested according to Board requirements. The Board Secretariat has set a requirement that 75 per cent of the textbooks be developed by the government and 25 per cent by the private sector. Since the implementation of PRODED in 1981, the curriculum development centres are no longer functioning for curriculum development. Textbooks to support the New Elementary School Curriculum are being prepared by private publishers. Their writers use writing briefs prepared by the Bureau of Elementary Education as guidelines for content, teaching strategies, values and skills for specific areas and grade levels.

The price of textbooks is set by the Price Committee composed of one Textbook Board member as chairman, one representative of the Philippine Educational Publishers Association and one representative of the Government Printing Office.

Committee on the Evaluation of Instructional Materials. This body approves all instructional materials other than textbooks, including supplementary readers, reference books, teaching aids and devices, sets prices for these materials and issues bulletins to guide teachers in their use.

The submission of instructional materials is open to all qualified individuals or group writers and duly registered publishers and printers. Materials are sent to two or three subject area experts for review and evaluation of their content and language. The reviewers also recommend the grade levels and the subject areas for which the materials are suitable. All books in Pilipino are sent to the Institute of National Language for linguistic review. The Committee maintains a master list of reviewers with different areas of expertise from the different Bureaus or outside the Ministry if the necessary specialization is not available in the Bureaus.

Materials are then sent to the Government Printing Office for production cost estimate or returned to the author or publisher for improvement.

Mass media and educational technology

After the passing of the Educational Development Decree of 1972, audio-visual media were integrated into the educational system for quality improvement of the formal and non-formal education programmes. In April 1975 the Philippine government, recognizing the educational potential of mass media, created an inter-agency Communication Technology for Education Pilot Project. The project ran from 1978 to 1981 and was designed to provide continuing education to elementary school teachers and pupils, and to extension workers and farm families in selected rural project sites. These sites included Pangasinan in Region I, Leyte in Region VIII and Maguindanao in Region XII.

One of the components of the project was called Radio Assisted Teaching in Elementary Schools. This was a total educational package for the teaching of Pilipino in Grades IV, V and VI. In the three selected sites, teachers were provided with radio lessons with corresponding pupils' worksheets, evaluation materials and suggested pre-and post-broadcast activities.

Another component was Continuing Education of Teachers, a distance learning programme for primary teachers in the project sites. CET used a combination of radio lessons transmitted via open broadcast, print and audio-visual materials and forum sessions to synthesize learning concepts. Teacher-participants were offered training courses to upgrade their mastery of content and teaching skills in the five basic subject areas communication arts in Pilipino and English, social studies, science and mathematics. They were awarded certificates of participation which could be used toward promotion, and with some additional work, were given two or three credits toward an M.A. degree from accredited teacher training institutions.

The Pilot Project intended to provide training courses to 16,000 teachers, Pilipino lessons to 2,700 pupils in Grades IV, V and VI, and continuing education broadcasts to the provinces of Rizal, Bulacan, Batangas, Laguna, Quezon and Cavite. The evaluation during the Project's second year of operation yielded information on the comparative cost-effectiveness of the various approaches it used to improve the quality of basic education. Specifically, the Pilot Project was expected to provide experience that would generate guidelines for integrating mass communications into the overall educational system.

Region VIII is presently conducting research financed by Unesco on the use of Pilipino as a medium of communication education staff. This project involves a Multi-Media In-Service Education Programme of taped lessons accompanied by printed materials about Pilipino and language and a practicum for learning and teaching Pilipino. Other than radio, audio-visual media have proved too expensive to use on a large scale.

Financing primary education

The major source of financial support for primary education in the Philippines is the National Government. Local governments are also encouraged to share in the operation of the Public schools. Other sources of funds are donations and loans.

The National Budget. The general appropriation for elementary education in the National Budget includes current operating expenditures for programme implementation, policy formulation, general administration and support services, and capital outlays for site acquisition, improvements, equipment, investment and loans. It does not include allocations for the construction and improvement of school facilities. Instead, school building funds are released to the Ministry of Public Works and Highways.

Special Education Fund. The Special Education Fund comes from the proceeds of an additional one per cent of the assessed value of real property tax and a certain portion of the taxes on Virginia-type cigarettes and duties on imported leaf tobacco. It was originally to be spent on the following activities:

1. The organization and operation of extension classes to accommodate all children of school age desiring to enter grade I;
2. The construction and repair of elementary school buildings, acquisition of sites, and construction and repair of auxiliary buildings needed to teach practical arts, home economics and vocational courses, giving priority to elementary schools;

3. Payment of public school teachers' salaries;
4. The preparation, printing and purchase of textbooks, teachers' guides, forms and pamphlets to be used in public schools;
5. The purchase or improvement of technical equipment including that needed for vocational courses;
6. A central printing plant for educational materials and the improvement of regional printing plants in the vocational schools;
7. The purchase of teaching materials and simple laboratory devices for elementary and secondary classes;
8. Citizenship development in barrio high schools, folk schools and adult education classes;
9. Education research, including that of the Board of National Education;
10. Government scholarships for poor but deserving students;
11. The promotion of physical education and athletic meets.

These guidelines for disbursing the Special Education Fund are no longer realistic, and are currently being revised.

Local financing. Local initiative for financing elementary education vary. Divisions with more resources have tapped city or municipal funds for such costs as fringe benefits, infrastructure, supplies and instructional materials. In some cases, proceeds for primary education come from a certain percentage of school canteen funds or from fund-raising drives.

The following tables and graphs describe in more detail the national expenditures on elementary education in the Philippines.

Table 3. National expenditure on elementary education, 1960-1980

Year	*Education budget*	*Amount allocated for elem. Educ.*	*Percentage of budget for elem. education*	*Enrolment*	*Per-pupil expenditures*
FY 1960-70	₱1,085,900,000*	₱ 770,716,000	71%	7,045,600	₱ 109.39
CY 1975	₱1,910,224,000	₱1,368,039,000	72%	7,253,407	₱ 188.61
CY 1980	₱3,414,378,000	₱2,356,665,139	69%	7,817,450	₱ 301.46

* ₱14 = $1

Figure 2.
Per-pupil expenditure, 1970-1980

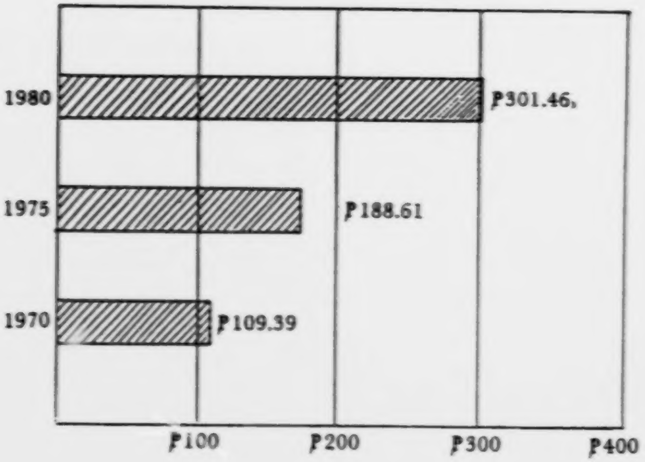

Figure 3.
Trends in budget allocations for primary education, 1970-1980

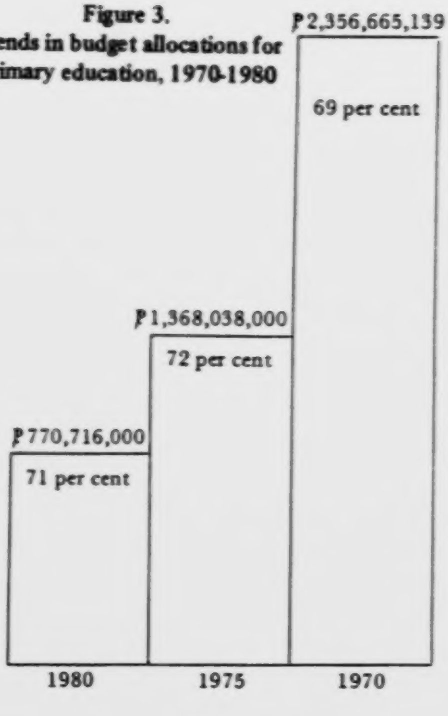

Table 3 indicates that while the amount allocated for elementary education increased between 1970 and 1980, there was a drop from 72 per cent in 1975 to 69 per cent in 1980 in the proportion of the elementary education allocation to the total education budget. However, as shown in Figure 1, this reduction has not affected the per-pupil expenditure in spite of the increase in enrolment shown in Table 3. This may be attributed to the fact that the 1980 allocation substantially increased and that national budget funds are generally augmented at the local level.

Incentives. Public elementary education is free and the Government pays for textbooks, medical and dental care and immunization services.

All public primary schools have supplementary feeding programmes for third-degree malnourished pupils. This midday meal is financed by local governments and/or civic organizations. Other malnourished and indigent pupils are provided with free snacks from the school canteen in many schools of the country. These food incentives encourage parents in depressed areas to send their children to school and raises participation rates.

School buildings

The rapid expansion of the Philippine public school system because of a galloping population growth has meant that physical facilities are inadequate. Some segments of the country have suffered from inequalities in the provision of other educational resources as well, and this has affected the outcomes of education in these areas.

An inventory of school furniture and equipment was undertaken throughout the country in 1981. A total of 73,199 school buildings of various types, comprising 216,753 classrooms were counted in the inventory. The inventory showed a national average of three rooms per academic building. Half of the public elementary schools were concrete, 38.8 per cent were wooden and 10.8 per cent were made of bamboo and nipa. About 43 per cent of the school buildings were found to be in good condition, 35.5 per cent could be repaired 12.7 per cent were incomplete according to the standard plan, and 8.5 per cent needed to be replaced. Of the non-academic buildings, such as administrative offices, libraries, primary agriculture shops or storerooms, only 35.5 per cent were in good condition, 38.3 per cent needed repair, 14.5 per cent needed replacement, and 11.7 per cent had not been completed.

The Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports has programmed the construction of 12,600 classrooms or around 4,200 three-room school building units each year. This school building programme is supported by an average yearly budget of ₱87,000 per school building unit, or a total of about ₱400 million a year. Another source of funds for school buildings is the $20,000,000 from the Economic Support Fund paid by the United States for the use of land for its bases. The fund is administered by the Ministry of Human Settlements. These ESF-funded buildings have served as models for the construction of school buildings under PRODED.

The Ministry of Public Works constructs schools as recommended by the Office of Planning Service in the Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture. School sites must be accessible to the greatest possible number of children in a community, and located away from heavy traffic, recreational areas of questionable moral influence, military barracks, or insanitary areas. The soil around the buildings should be suitable for gardening projects.

The Office of Planning Service co-ordinates with the Bureau of Elementary Education and the regional offices in determining the number and location of needed school buildings. Land for school facilities may be acquired by municipalities, cities or provinces through purchase, exchange, reservation, expropriation or donation, with the approval of the President of the Philippines. At the provincial level, supervision and control of the establishment of schools rests with a Provincial/City Schoolbuilding Committee responsible for identifying schoolbuilding needs and prioritizing them as to sites. This Committee is made up of the provincial governor or city mayor the division superintendent and the district/city engineer. At the end of each calendar year, the Ministry of Public Works, the Ministry of Local Governments and the provincial or city development officers jointly evaluate the performance of the provincial government and submit their reports and recommendations to the Minister of Public Works and Highways, the Office of Budget and Management and the Commission on Audit.

The role of local communities in primary education

The head of each school division is responsible for ensuring the support of local leaders for the primary schools. Every division has a school board consisting of the provincial governor, division superintendent and development officer. On the school level, boards are composed of the mayor, district supervisor and principal. These mechanisms make local governments and communities responsible for generating funds for and participation in school projects.

At no time in the history of elementary education in the Philippines has community development been given more prominence than now. Attempts are being made to reduce disparities in educational opportunity and raise the overall quality and efficiency of primary education. Although school principals are the key figures in the implementation of the elementary school programme, local community leaders in the country play an auxiliary role.

Citizens' groups like the Parent-Teacher Associations, barangays and mothers' clubs participate actively in the establishment and management of local schools. Officers of these associations petition the proper government authorities for the establishment of needed schools or facilities. In some areas, civic-minded citizens themselves raise the funds for buildings or facilities.

Community organizations also help to implement various school and extracurricular activities. Boy Scout or Girl Scout Councils may help school principals with youth development activities. Members of the Anti-Narcotics and Dangerous Drug Squad may help in preventing or eradicating drug addiction by deploying plainclothesmen in the vicinity of the school. Mothers' club volunteers may serve as teacher-aides in kindergarten and grade I classes. Parent-Teacher Associations help in supervising Green Revolution projects such as Garden Day, when prizes are given to school children and community members for food produced during the year. Professional athletes in the community sometimes supervise athletic competitions.

Local communities also have much to offer the enrichment of teaching and learning. Resource persons from the community are invited to the school for staff improvement and learning development activities, and are invited to talk to the children during assemblies or regular classes.

Community resources play a very important role in vocational education. Students report to the tailoring or to the dressmaking shop to learn the rudiments of sewing, to a bakery or furniture store to learn baking or furniture repair, or to a laundry woman to learn the process of washing clothes.

Some private citizens offer scholarships or sponsor contests in various subject areas, or give financial assistance to various school projects.

Today there is a growing awareness among local communities that educating children and youth is not only the responsibility of the government but of the parents as well. Barangay members are campaigning for all children of school age to go to school. Local communities also co-operate in alternatives to formal schooling such as Project Impact, the In-School-Off-School Approach and other non-traditional schemes. Feedback from parents in barangay and PTA meetings guides school officials in formulating or modifying educational policy. To encourage the kinds of participation and support described here, school authorities consider it imperative to develop strong links between the school and the community.

Chapter Two

PROGRESS TOWARDS UNIVERSALIZATION

This chapter presents an analysis of primary education in the country in terms of the progress towards universalization and the problems encountered. The analysis is largely related to the statistical tables included.

Primary education in the last decade

Table 4 below shows the estimated elementary age-group (7-12 years) population in the country and the percentage of growth in this population since 1970.

Table 4. Estimated population in age-group corresponding to elementary education in the national system

Year	*Age Group (. . .)*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage growth rate*
1970	7–12	5,818,458	
1980	7–12	7,451,736	28.07
Projections*			
1990	7–12	8,786,087	17.91
1995	7–12	8,866,941	.92

* Based on 1980 census (medium assumption)

The decrease of growth rate in the school-age population from 1980 to 1990 is expected because of the government's effective population education programme. The inclusion of this subject in the school curriculum and the promotion of the programme especially at the grass-roots level have created an awareness of the need for family planning.

The next table includes data on primary schools, pupil enrolment and the number of teachers in both public and private schools from 1970 to 1981. The greatest increase in all of these occured from 1970 to 1975, though there was a substantial increase between 1980 and 1981. The same trend is noted in the pupil enrolment and in the number of teachers in primary education.

Of the total number of primary schools from 1970 to 1981, 85 per cent were in rural areas and 15 per cent were in urban areas.

In 1970 the national teacher-pupil ratio was 1:27, in 1975, it was 1:29, and in 1980 and 1981, 1:31. There were more pupils enrolled in the primary schools located in the rural areas from 1970 to 1981. Of the pupils enrolled, the percentage of boys enrolled is greater only by a small percentage than that of the girls.

While there was an increase over this period in the number of schools, pupils enrolled and teachers in primary education, there was a gradual decrease in the population growth rate for the age-group and the growth rate of primary schools and teachers.

In terms of number of teachers in primary education, there were more teachers in schools located in the rural areas and of these teachers, the female teachers constitute an average of 85 to 81 per cent.

Table 6 lists the age and grade distribution of pupils enrolled in all grades of public and private elementary schools and one next higher grade for the 1981-1982 school year.

Of the total of 61,335 six-year-old pupils enrolled in elementary education in 1981-1982, 93 per cent were enrolled in grade I and 7 per cent were in grade II. The high percentage of six-year-old pupils in grade I could be attributed to the high social demand for education in the early years. For the seven-year-old pupils, 93 per cent were in grade I and 7 per cent were in grade II. Of the eight-year-olds, 63 per cent were in grade II and 30 per cent in grade I. For nine-to twelve-year old pupils, 44 to 57 per cent were enrolled in the grade level corresponding to their ages; that is, 57 per cent of the nine-year-old pupils were in grade III, 53 per cent of the ten-year-old pupils were in grade IV, 48 per cent of the eleven-year-old pupils were in grade V and 44 per cent of the twelve-year-old pupils were in grade VI.

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Table 5. Trends in primary education, 1970-1981

Year	*Number of Primary Schools*			*Sex*	*No. of Enrolled Pupils in Primary Education*			*No. of Teachers in Primary Education*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*		*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
1970	20,227	3,577	23,804	M	2,136,394	1,350,082	3,486,476	29,305	16,533	45,838
				F	1,832,039	1,309,219	3,141,258	126,577	71,406	197,983
	84.97	15.03		T	3,968,433	2,659,301	6,627,734	155,882	87,939	243,821
1975	26,326	4,657	30,983	M	2,476,373	1,564,930	4,041,303	32,167	18,147	50,314
				F	2,123,585	5,517,564	3,641,149	138,942	78,382	217,324
				T	4,599,958	3,082,494	7,682,452	171,109	96,529	267,638
1980	26,727	4,728	31,455	M	2,604,521	1,645,913	4,250,434	26,349	14,865	41,214
				F	2,356,208	1,683,802	4,040,010	146,217	82,486	228,703
				T	4,960,729	3,329,715	8,290,444	172,566	97,351	269,917
1981	26,960	4,769	31,729	M	2,673,570	1,689,548	4,363,118	25,629	14,459	40,088
				F	2,423,368	1,731,797	4,155,165	147,889	83,428	231,317
				T	5,092,230	3,426,053	8,518,283	173,518	97,887	271,405

* Number of teachers in private sector estimated.

Table 6. Age and grade distribution of pupils enrolled in elementary education and one next higher grade* 1981-1982

Age	Sex	Grade Level						
		1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*First Year*
5								
6	M	28,146 (49.51)	2,896 (64.56)					
	F	28,703 (50.49)	1,590 (35.44)					
7	M	541,946 (50.97)	37,561 (47.92)	2,035 (43.57)				
	F	521,319 (49.03)	40,822 (52.08)	2,635 (56.43)				
8	M	201,859 (53.12)	396,876 (49.63)	37,325 (47.99)	1,281 (47.74)			
	F	178,147 (46.88)	402,794 (50.37)	40,452 (52.01)	143 (52.26)			
9	M	77,929 (55.77)	166,872 (52.23)	351,867 (48.39)	37,461 (47.63)	1,332 (51.28)		
	F	61,804 (44.23)	152,623 (47.77)	375,282 (51.61)	41,189 (52.37)	1,265 (48.72)		
10	M	33,352 (57.36)	69,859 (55.36)	164,587 (51.56)	320,270 (48.55)	36,375 (48.40)	3,428 (44.72)	
	F	24,793 (42.64)	56,332 (44.64)	154,628 (48.44)	339,400 (51.45)	38,779 (51.60)	4,238 (55.26)	
11	M	17,689 (58.13)	40,728 (57.64)	74,870 (54.27)	154,029 (50.63)	275,539 (47.99)	38,116 (47.64)	4,204 (50.19)
	F	12,741 (41.87)	29,932 (42.36)	63,088 (45.73)	150,196 (49.37)	298,620 (52.01)	41,892 (52.36)	4,172 (49.80)
12	M	10,221 (58.06)	20,527 (58.72)	41,050 (56.12)	71,953 (52.92)	148,777 (49.95)	255,202 (47.55)	56,773 (50.19)
	F	7,384 (41.94)	14,430 (41.28)	32,096 (43.88)	64,013 (47.08)	149,074 (50.05)	281,501 (52.45)	56,343 (49.80)
13	M	40,582 (59.34)	67,258 (60.46)	68,213 (59.03)	102,426 (55.69)	151,774 (52.59)	239,160 (50.32)	372,403 (50.19)
	F	27,807 (40.66)	43,985 (39.54)	47,344 (40.97)	81,495 (44.31)	136,825 (47.41)	236,118 (49.68)	369,583 (49.80)
Total		1,814,422	1,545,085	1,455,472	1,365,137	1,238,372	1,099,795	863,478

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* Age distribution of pupils in the private sector estimated.

Further examination of the data shows a that only 59.66 per cent of the pupils were enrolled in the grades corresponding to their ages. This could be attributed to the numbers of pupils enrolling before age six, and numbers of drop-outs, repeaters, school returnees and pupils enrolling late.

School administration

Presidential Decree No. 1, or the Integrated Reorganization Plan, went into effect in 1975 to achieve greater economy and efficiency in government operations. Under this Plan the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports went from a highly centralized system in which only three promotional bureaus handled all educational activities, to a decentralized structure that gave more authority to regional staff. The directors of the 13 regions supervise and evaluate all educational operations within their regions.

Under this system, education has become more responsive to local needs and projects have been more efficiently managed. The present organization of the educational system should help to accelerate the universalization of primary education.

Geographical distribution of primary education facilities

A study to ascertain and quantify regional disparities in education was undertaken in 1979. The study measured literacy rate, participation rate, cohort survival rate, achievement levels, proportion of adults with Grade VI education and transition rates from elementary to secondary school. Based on these indicators, national cut-offs were determined. For participation, achievement and survival the national cut-offs were 75, 47 and 67 per cent, respectively. Of the school districts measured, 23 were found to rank below these cut-off figures. In the same year the Planning Service classified all 30,622 schools in the country according to adequacy of instructional materials, teacher training, equipment, buildings and geographical accessibility. A total of 13,369 schools were categorized as depressed, disadvantaged and underserved (DDU) in this survey.

Table 7 shows the distribution by region of elementary education facilities in 1981-1982. A breakdown of pupils by sex is not included since no such data are available.

Table 7. Geographical distribution of elementary education facilities, 1981-1982

Region	*Total population of elementary education age-group (1981)*	*Number of elementary schools*	*No. of pupils enrolled in elementary school**	*No. of age-group pupils enrolled in elementary school**	*Percentage of enrolment of age-group*
NCR	842,167	754	874,844	795,933	94.51
I	535,453	2,933	625,502	527,100	98.44
II	349,197	2,215	395,890	345,530	98.95
III	751,251	2,473	870,644	739,456	98.43
IV	961,836	3,823	1,094,134	909,091	94.52
V	565,275	2,800	669,800	542,385	95.95
VI	704,774	3,163	840,523	691,234	98.08
VII	585,102	2,564	637,668	546,856	93.46
VIII	445,333	3,029	499,255	436,471	98.01
IX	407,656	1,937	435,749	380,451	93.33
X	442,531	2,269	509,595	408,712	92.36
XI	537,677	2,055	605,712	525,645	97.76
XII	373,302	1,714	458,967	365,097	97.80
TOTAL	7,501,554	31,729	8,518,283	7,213,961	96.17

* Includes under-age and over-age pupils

** Includes 7- to 12-year-old pupils only

All 13 regions had an enrolment ratio of 92 per cent and above. Region II, with an enrolment ratio of 98.95 per cent, ranked first, followed by Region I with 98.44 per cent and Region III with 98.43 per cent. The last in rank was Region X, with an enrolment ratio of 92.36 per cent. The three highest ratios come from Luzon area and the three lowest from the Visayas and Mindanao. Some regions have better roads and others receive more public investment. The proximity of Luzon to the seat of the National Government makes it more accessible to economic development efforts and goods than the Visayas and Mindanao. Other factors like attitudes towards education and general allocation of resources might explain the regional differences.

The enrolment in government elementary schools by region, grade and sex for 1981-1982 is presented in Table 8.

The statistical table did not yield data on enrolment in rural areas and urban areas. However, Regions III, IV and VI are highly urbanized while Regions II, IX, X and XII are rural and have diverse cultural minority groups, and higher enrolment is shown the former.

Table 8. Enrolment in government elementary schools by region, grade and sex 1981-1982

Region	*Grade I*		*Grade II*		*Grade III*		*Grade IV*		*Grade V*		*Grade VI*		*Total*		*Grand Total*
	M	*F*		*F*	*M*	*F*	*M*	*F*	*M*	*F*	*M*	*F*	*M*	*F*	
NCR	65,862	60,076	59,777	54,963	60,307	56,514	59,313	56,162	58,957	57,853	54,646	53,190	358,862	338,763	697,625
I	63,222	58,142	53,555	49,177	51,559	47,807	50,707	47,139	47,494	44,676	42,390	41,461	308,927	288,422	597,349
II	43,894	39,394	35,609	33,413	32,997	31,208	32,128	29,803	29,462	28,944	23,564	24,456	197,654	187,218	384,872
III	83,746	75,943	75,493	69,207	72,807	67,865	70,648	65,608	64,600	62,187	58,302	56,801	425,596	397,611	823,207
IV	112,601	100,305	95,834	88,364	92,863	85,725	87,207	82,961	80,566	78,629	72,773	72,188	541,864	508,172	1,050,036
V	71,940	64,700	61,993	56,836	59,262	54,895	55,142	52,443	48,025	46,640	41,960	41,523	338,322	317,037	655,359
VI	94,960	84,578	77,685	72,093	71,514	67,217	65,706	64,198	57,150	57,853	50,068	51,536	417,083	397,475	814,558
VII	71,999	64,095	59,394	55,673	55,021	52,031	48,617	48,295	41,530	42,537	34,262	36,625	310,823	299,256	610,079
VIII	58,060	54,711	47,676	45,286	42,142	43,677	38,997	39,953	32,745	34,588	26,516	29,754	246,136	247,969	494,105
IX	55,796	49,537	40,550	41,289	37,748	34,954	32,944	32,770	27,674	27,832	22,227	23,719	216,939	210,101	427,040
X	59,484	51,733	47,728	44,630	43,668	41,169	38,140	38,535	33,082	34,536	29,203	31,913	251,305	242,516	493,821
XI	69,318	62,931	55,565	51,639	50,620	48,493	45,193	45,154	38,699	40,623	32,499	35,261	291,894	284,101	575,995
XII	56,161	53,847	47,610	43,516	41,211	37,457	33,855	33,364	28,051	27,734	22,897	23,541	229,785	219,459	449,244
TOTAL	907,043	819,992	758,489	706,091	711,719	669,012	658,597	636,405	588,035	584,632	511,307	521,968	4,135,190	3,938,100	8,073,290

Source: MECS Statistical Bulletin 1982

Of the 8,073,290 children enrolled in 1981-1982, 51.22 per cent were boys and 48.78 per cent were girls, in every region but Region III. Across grade levels, boys outnumber girls in grades I through V. Regions VI, VII, VIII, IX, X and XI show marked increases in the enrolment of girls in grades V and VI. This may be explained by the fact that in these farming and fishing areas parents expect their sons to help in earning the family income.

Table 9 shows the number of classes in government elementary schools by region in 1981-1982.

Table 9. Public elementary classes by region, 1981-1982

Region	*Multi-grade classes*	*Classes of grades I–VI*	*Grand total*
NCR	106	18,462	18,568
I	1,033	16,436	17,469
II	1,186	9,315	10,501
III	927	19,667	20,594
IV	1,543	25,548	27,091
V	1,236	16,925	18,161
VI	832	21,726	22,558
VII	762	15,599	16,361
VIII	1,331	12,732	14,063
IX	1,212	9,594	10,806
X	665	10,734	11,399
XI	944	13,512	14,456
XII	490	10,189	10,679
TOTAL	12,267	200,439	212,706

Source: MECS Statistical Bulletin, 1982

Regions IV, VI and III rank highest in number of classes for 1981-1982, while Regions IX, XII and II rank lowest. Since the former regions had a high enrolment for this school year, it follows that the number of classes is also high.

The total enrolment given in Table 8 for school year 1981-1982 is 8,073,290 and the total number of classes is 212,706. The average size of the classes in the primary schools for the school year was therefore 38 pupils per class.

Retention of primary students

Table 10 shows the number of children who dropped out of elementary school in each grade during the 1981-1982 school year.

For the school year 1982-1983, the Government elementary schools achieved the high retention rate of 91.52 per cent, which means a dropout rate of only 2.92 per cent. The problem of children withdrawing from school before completing the primary cycle is not as serious in the Philippines as it is in other developing countries. This rate should drop to zero if the Government's educational development programme through PRODED proves successful.

The rate of children who have to repeat grades was 2.14 per cent in 1981-1982, and studies have been conducted to find the underlying causes for repetition and the remedial measures needed to lower the rate. To remedy grade repetition, the Government adopted a policy of automatic promotion, but this policy was modified after five years of operation because it was adversely affecting pupil achievement. Today grade repetition is allowed if teachers can prove they have made every effort to help children pass and have been unsuccessful.

Guidance Centres have been organized in most elementary schools not only to handle children's personality problems but also to determine their occupational inclinations and skills. In co-ordination with non-formal education authorities, guidance counsellors follow cases of potential and actual drop-outs to help retain or retrieve them.

Teacher supply and demand

Teachers for the primary level are provided by teacher training institutions in both the government and non-government sectors. The former includes 48 colleges and universities and about 80 per cent of them offer teacher training for different levels.

Pre-service primary teacher training institutions are located throughout the 13 educational regions. There are variations in enrolment from region to region. The National Capital Region in

Table 10. Drop-outs in Government elementary schools by region, grade and sex
1981-1982

Region	I		II		III		IV		V		VI		Total		Grand Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
NCR	1,139	918	662	504	770	530	758	534	992	650	797	536	5,118	3,672	8,790
I	2,439	1,762	929	981	1,092	941	970	673	1,204	775	1,074	450	7,708	5,582	13,290
II	1,295	991	842	528	872	490	674	440	809	594	649	448	5,141	3,491	8,632
III	2,131	1,459	1,352	872	1,286	934	1,455	956	1,630	1,167	1,383	847	9,237	6,235	15,472
IV	3,534	2,455	2,027	1,317	2,263	1,375	2,221	1,421	2,399	1,581	1,813	1,153	14,257	9,302	23,559
V	2,396	1,874	1,893	1,331	1,914	1,314	1,986	1,333	2,046	1,385	1,781	1,233	12,016	8,470	20,486
VI	3,923	2,817	2,942	1,842	2,943	1,727	2,847	1,789	2,935	1,879	2,325	1,432	17,915	11,486	29,401
VII	5,029	3,261	3,191	1,938	3,031	1,825	2,658	1,748	2,416	1,841	1,776	1,114	18,101	11,727	29,828
VIII	2,919	2,045	2,403	1,618	2,126	1,381	2,078	1,389	1,940	1,373	1,411	1,034	12,877	8,840	21,717
IX	1,759	1,365	1,342	925	1,313	903	1,239	821	1,213	891	1,017	784	7,883	5,689	13,572
X	1,951	1,518	1,290	953	1,270	912	1,074	803	1,107	843	901	839	7,593	5,868	13,461
XI	2,666	2,061	2,041	1,352	1,938	1,355	1,771	1,301	1,804	1,318	1,422	1,087	11,642	8,474	20,116
XII	2,808	1,926	1,785	1,280	1,709	1,148	1,502	946	1,442	936	1,269	677	10,515	6,913	17,428
TOTAL	33,989	24,452	22,699	15,441	22,527	14,835	21,233	14,154	21,937	15,233	17,618	11,634	140,003	95,749	235,752

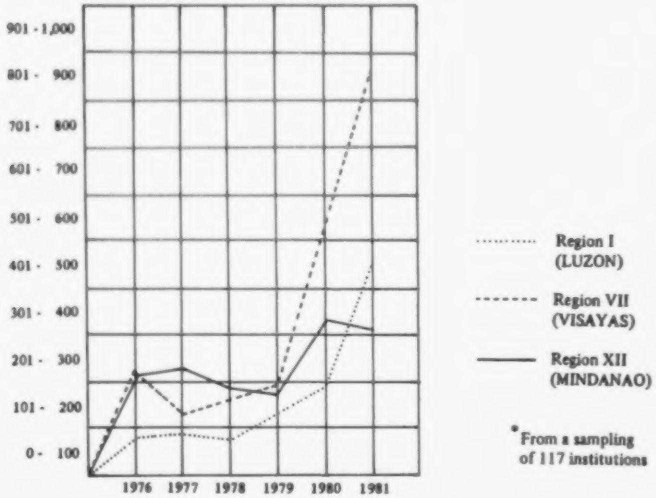
Sources: Regional Annual Report, 1981
EOY Division Statistical Bulletin, 1981-1982
EOY District Statistical Bulletin, 1981-1982

which Manila is located has the highest enrolment. However, because of the "decongestion of Manila" programme, many Manila institutions have established branches in other regions. This has given those in rural areas an opportunity to enrol in teacher education classes.

Only three of the 48 Government colleges and universities are teachers' colleges or normal colleges that offer teacher training only. Until the early 1970s there were eight public normal schools in different regions of the country, but because their curricula have expanded, only one of them, the Philippine Normal College, has remained exclusively a teachers' college. The others have been chartered as state colleges or universities and are presently offering teacher education along with liberal arts, agriculture and even medicine. The attraction of these other courses may have caused the slump in enrolment in teacher education in the early 1970s. The private colleges and universities offer teacher education courses in both elementary and secondary levels.

In a recent study of 117 teacher training institutions in the 13 educational regions, it was shown that there was an enrolment slump from 1975 to 1979 and a peak in enrolment in 1980 and 1981. The results of this study are shown in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4. Enrolment trends in teacher training institutions, 1976-1981



*From a sampling of 117 institutions

Enrolment increase as shown in this graph may have been due to Government incentives like salary increases, living allowances and allowances for supplies and materials.

Other factors may have been the introduction of the Master Teacher Plan, which allows horizontal upgrading of salaries for competent primary teachers who may be promoted to Master Teacher I, II, III, IV or V, and the Merit Increase Programme, which rewards teachers for exemplary performance, cost-effective innovations, or graduate coursework without benefit of a Government scholarship.

During this period many new teachers were hired all over the country. Schools in the remote areas do not suffer from a lack of teachers because in the depressed, disadvantaged and underserved areas there are special incentives like the "hazard allowance" for teachers.

There are no data available for those schools that have combination classes (two grades taught by one teacher) or for one-teacher schools. However, in a study of Government primary schools it has been found that 5.7 per cent of the 214,329 classes are multigrade, where a teacher teaches three grades in one class. (See Table 9). These schools exist in the rural or remote areas where there are few pupils enrolled in each grade. With more and more roads being built in many communities, it is possible that this situation is changing in all but the most remote areas. There are 1,800 school districts in the Philippines, and one or two classes in each district are combination or multigrade classes, according to verbal reports of some assistant superintendents.

The National Research and Development Centre for Teacher Education made a study of teacher demand in 88 sample school divisions of the 13 regions for 1980 and 1981. The study took into account attrition due to retirement, death, and resignation, natural increase due to higher enrolment based on the ideal pupil-teacher ratio. The results showed that of the 1,015 teachers who left the service in 1980, 22.76 per cent resigned, and of the 1,699 who left in 1981, 11.65 per cent died, 52.62 per cent retired and 35.73 per cent resigned. The increase in those who resigned is perhaps due to transfers to other jobs or to self-employment.

Of the 88 division superintendents interviewed, 17 per cent reported enough applicants for 1981, 54.5 per cent reported more than enough and 8 per cent said there were not enough applicants. The last 8 per cent headed divisions in typhoon-prone areas or areas where transportation and communication are difficult. It is possible that there are variations in the number of teachers needed among divisions within regions, districts within divisions, or even schools within districts. There are divisions that include large cities where there are more than enough teacher applicants due to opportunities for after-school employment. On the other hand, in schools on isolated islands the attraction is much lower due to inconveniences prospective teachers would experience. Analysis of the supply and demand curves in the study mentioned shows that there seems to be an adequate supply of teachers for primary classes.

Teachers for special groups. In the Ministry's Bureau of Elementary Education there is a Special Education Division (SPED) that provides training for primary school teachers in the diagnosis, assessment and referral of gifted, handicapped and learning disabled children. The demand for these SPED teachers is quite high. A May 1983 survey of 25 per cent of the country's school districts indicated that there may be as many as 91,363 exceptional children in the Philippines. If the national average class size of 25 pupils per class is applied, there should be 3,654 SPED teachers trained. In one region, however, there are only 94 SPED teachers for 10,385 exceptional children. Records of the Special Education Division show a high attrition rate for teachers: only 64 per cent of the SPED teachers trained have remained in the programme. To meet the critical demand for special education teachers, SPED has offered short-term, non-degree courses during summers and other teacher holidays, but there is still a need for more of these teachers.

To help teachers and administrators cope with the challenge of mainstreaming, or integration in regular classes, of special education students, the Ministry has provided funds for special training. Some 1,200 staff members have undertaken this training.

Programmes for the 120 ethnolinguistic groups or cultural minorities in the Philippines are handled by the Presidential Assistant for National Minorities (PANAMIN). Since literacy is the most important factor in teaching of the minorities, the Ministry arranges language training for teachers through the Summer Institute of Linguistics. During the summer, the Baguio Vacation Normal School offers scholarships for teachers of literacy to cultural minority groups. The teachers sign a contract to go back to their own villages to teach or co-ordinate a group of teachers. In this Programme for Functional Literacy Teachers, teachers can earn a Master of Arts in Education with a specialization in functional literacy. They are taught unique teaching methods adopted by literacy workers in specific communities. For example, in Saranggani-Bilaan community members are trained as literacy teachers; in Central Mindanao's Vernacular Component, native children who shy away from the public schools because of their inability to understand English or Pilipino are taught one half hour each day in the vernacular by lay teachers; and among the Kankanai of Northern Luzon, literacy teachers encourage the community to tell folktales, riddles and jokes to be written in their language and then distributed to encourage reading and writing.

Male-female ratios among teachers. In the Philippines most primary-level teachers are female. The ratio of women to men teachers ranges from 5:1 to 13:1. One school in Manila has 100 female and 5 male teachers. The majority of men teachers originally assigned to the primary level have been promoted to principals or supervisors or have sought employment elsewhere, and since 1978 enrolment of men in teacher training institutions has fallen drastically. Many people complain about the possible effect on pupils of fewer male teachers at the primary level, and the possibility of recruiting more male teachers is being studied so that vocational and pre-military training and physical education may be expanded.

School supervision

The role of the district supervisor is both administrative and supervisory. Among his duties are – supervision of pre-schools and elementary schools, evaluation of educational achievement and co-ordination of the school programme with the functions of other agencies in the promotion of socio-economic projects. He leads in community development projects for both social and economic purposes, is the chairman of the local school board and participates in civic and even religious activities. In his role as facilitator for both community activities and national development projects, the district supervisor contributes to making primary education available to disadvantaged sectors and ensuring community involvement in education.

To make the district supervisors more effective in this dual role, a special training programme has been conducted since 1976 and 870 district supervisors have been trained. The programme includes such topics as community development, educational leadership, human resource management, non-formal education and rural-urban dynamics. Trainees also visit rural communities. At the end of the course, the supervisors make plans for the improvement of their own districts and these plans are monitored and evaluated after the training. Besides the programme described above, there have been many other seminars and workshops to make the district supervisors better administrators and supervisors. Teachers who will later be promoted to supervisors take courses at the pre-service level in administration and supervision.

Subject supervisors are also concerned with students' learning disabilities and must adopt remedial teaching programmes in their subject areas. Health supervisors in deprived areas interpret health and hygiene programmes to students and community members.

Primary education for special population groups

Cultural minorities. The ethnolinguistic minorities in the Philippines comprise about 5.9 million people, or 12 per cent of the population. In 1967 PANAMIN, the Presidential Assistant on National Minorities, was established to facilitate the integration of ethnic groups wishing to be assimilated into Philippine society and to protect the rights of those wishing to preserve their own lifestyles. Education is one of the components of PANAMIN's broad community development programmes, and primary and secondary schools for minorities have been built and upgraded to improve their access to education.

Economically disadvantaged children. Disparities in the allocation of educational resources to the rural poor and those in developed areas have been noted in the past, and national policy now aims to reduce this disparity by providing free education to all school children in the primary age-group. Among children in the urban slums, the same policy of free compulsory primary education is followed. However, the main problem in the urban areas is congestion. Primary classes tend to be so large that classes are held in two shifts, morning and afternoon. This results in the full utilization of school facilities. Another measure to solve this problem is the relocation of squatters. Homes and schools are provided in each relocation area. In one of these areas a new instructional system called IMPACT enables an instructional supervisor to teach from 100 to 240 students in a class. Learning modules are used and pupils must report to the learning centre to take examinations before they are given the next lesson. This is one version of distance education, since the learners learn in their homes with the help of their parents or older siblings acting as tutors. The method is being tried in other parts of the country and in larger schools because it results in lower costs at standard quality of mass education.

Many agencies attend to the needs of economically deprived children. The Ministries of National Defence, Social Services and Development, Health, Local Government and Community Development, plus a host of non-government agencies, carry out programmes in literacy, health and sanitation, skills training, elementary agriculture and home improvement. These programmes help improve the quality of life in the rural areas and thereby improve the lives of children and their opportunity to receive a full education.

Exceptional children. The Philippine National School for the Blind and the National School for the Deaf in Manila were established as early as 1907 to provide special education and free lodging to handicapped children. Since then, special education programmes have expanded to serve children who are gifted, mentally retarded, visually impaired, hearing impaired and physically handicapped, and who have speech defects or learning disabilities. A nationwide survey of school-age exceptional children conducted from 1979 to 1982 revealed that among 907,094 students in 1,024 schools, 108,814 required special education services. These children fell into the following categories:

gifted	39,740
mentally retarded	49,607
children with behaviour problems	1,988
visually impaired	1,181
hearing impaired	4,574
children with speech defects	5,063
orthopaedically handicapped	2,063
children with special health problems	4,598
Total	108,814

Many of these children are still not receiving appropriate special education because of inadequate resources or funding.

Within the Bureau of Elementary Education there is a Special Education Division (SPED) that is responsible for the education of exceptional children. Twenty-three SPED centres have been established in various regions. There are also private special child study centres that undertake programmes for disabled children. UNICEF, the Philippine Foundation for the Rehabilitation of the Disabled, the Philippine Pediatric Society, the Nutrition Centre of the Philippines and the National Commission Concerning Disabled Persons are some of the national and international organizations that contribute to the care of these children. Table 11 lists the numbers of institutions of special education in the Philippines.

Table 11. Special education institutions

Type of Institution	*1981 or Year*	*1980*	*1975*	*1970*
Total primary schools	31,729	31,455	30,983	23,804
Schools for the physically handicapped –				
(a) Hearing impaired	7	7	5	2
(b) Visually impaired	3	3	3	1
(c) Orthopaedically handicapped	4	4	2	1
Schools for the mentally retarded	14	14	14	2
Schools for the mentally gifted	5	5	5	4
Schools for children with behavioural problems (includes schools that rehabilitate drug addicts and wayward youth, residences for girls and juvenile homes)	11	10	7	6
Special Education Centers (under the SPED Programme)	22	22	Unavailable	Unavailable

Special children are either segregated in special residential or day schools, or partially integrated in special classes for academic subjects but regular classes for non-academic subjects, or fully integrated in regular classes. The last option, mainstreaming, is the main goal of special education in the Philippines. There are also cases of "reverse integration", in which non-handicapped children are invited to special education classes or SPED centres.

The educational situation of the gifted and handicapped in the Philippines is more encouraging than it was a decade ago. The declaration of the International Year of the Child in 1980, the International Year of the Disabled in 1981, and President Marcos' proclamations of the Decade of the Filipino Child in 1976 and the Decade of Disabled Persons in 1981 have all been powerful springboards for the launching of special education programmes. During the 1982-1983 school year special students attended 47 special schools, 23 SPED centres and 1,602 regular elementary and secondary classes.

There are, however, several problems to be solved before all exceptional children can be given an adequate and appropriate primary education. There is a lack of information dissemination about the behavioural characteristics of handicapped children, a lack of inexpensive detection methods, a lack of adequate training of parents and teachers in identifying the handicapped and a lack of enforcement of the compulsory registration of exceptional children to allow for early intervention. Only 2 per cent of these children are currently receiving special education, but efforts are being made in many areas to improve this situation.

Non-formal education

The problem of non-enrolment of children who have access to primary education is not as serious in the Philippines as it is in some countries. Of the total age-group population of 7,501,554 in 1981, 96 per cent were enrolled in elementary school. The remaining children who do not or cannot go to school regularly are served by Government literacy and non-formal education programmes.

The Office of Non-formal Education (ONFE) implements a literacy programme for out-of-school youth and illiterate adults and offers vocational training for young school leavers who are entering the labour market without marketable skills. In 1982, enrollees in

NFE classes numbered 78,005, but there is no record of what percentage of these belong to the primary age-group.

The Distance Learning Delivery System enables primary school-age children who must earn money, to study through modules and continue to work. The Philippine Educational Placement Programme tests drop-outs to determine at what level they can re-enter the school system, and gives them credit for knowledge obtained through work and life outside school. Since 1978, 108,142 students have been tested in this programme and 47.18 per cent have moved into higher grades than the ones they left.

Chapter Three

NATIONAL POLICY AND PLANS FOR UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

The importance of an enlightened citizentry was recognized early by the colonizers of the Philippines, who tried to provide Filipino children with at least a minimum level of basic education. Royal decrees from Spain supported education and made school attendance compulsory. The Educational Reform of 1863 provided for free tuition for the poor in a public school system.

These significant beginnings were followed by more recent policies and plans to ensure the universalization of primary education in the country. Universalization means not only providing access to and equalization of educational opportunities for all children of school age, but also ensuring the highest possible quality of that education.

Plans to upgrade primary education.

National Plan of Action for Education for the Decade of the Filipino Child. In 1978 the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports formulated a child development plan for the Decade of the Filipino Child, which will last from 1978 to 1987. This Plan of Action stipulates that no child of school-age shall be deprived of basic education, that nutrition and school feeding programmes will be expanded, that local governments and school boards will provide pre-school education after other priorities have been met, and that such moral values as self-reliance, integrity, industry, social responsibility and discipline should be developed in young people. This Plan has provided direction for primary education throughout the country. It will improve access to basic social services for children in both urban and rural areas.

Survey of Outcomes of Elementary Education (SOUTELE). This was the country's maiden attempt at a systems analysis of primary education and, specifically, the achievement level of primary graduates in both public and private schools. SOUTELE painted a dismal picture of primary education in the country. It revealed that children around the country were generally deficient in basic skills, and that those in depressed, disadvantaged and underserved areas manifested poorer achievement than those in developed areas. It also revealed disparities not only in achievement but in educational resources between and within regions. This was the foundation for all projects aimed at the universalization of primary education.

Experimental Elementary Programme (EEEP). Picking up cues from SOUTELE, the Experimental Elementary Education Programme studied the relative effectiveness of an elementary curriculum with fewer subjects addressed particularly to the mastery of basic skills. It was tried out for two years and its results provided valuable insights for developing the New Elementary School Curriculum in 1983.

Programme for Comprehensive Elementary Education Development (PROCEED). This is the first attempt at developing a long-range plan to upgrade basic education and it is based on the findings of SOUTELE and the EEEP. PROCEED is a 10-year programme intended to develop eight major components of primary education, namely values, curriculum, teacher education, instructional materials, school facilities, management and planning, finance and budgeting, school-based health care and pre-school education.

Programme for Decentralized Educational Development (PRODED). The four-year (1982-1985) elementary education development programme known as PRODED is part of PROCEED and is the country's main strategy for universalizing primary education. A $100 million World Bank loan and corresponding matching funds from the government support the implementation of the programme.

PRODED aims to reduce disparities in elementary education among and within regions and raise the overall quality and efficiency of elementary education. During the next five to ten years, all efforts in elementary education will be geared towards the effective implementation of PROCEED and PRODED. Main priorities are summarized below.

1. *Increasing participation and survival rates.* Efforts shall be addressed to getting all children of school age enrolled in school and ensuring that they stay in school until they complete grade VI or VII. Disadvantaged groups shall merit special attention.

2. *Raising achievement levels.* There shall be a systematic monitoring and evaluation of learning progress which will mean the establishment of an evaluation system at all levels and training in test development. In the Bureau of Elementary Education, a Project for the Preparation of Elementary Evaluation Measures is being implemented. In the Accelerated Learning Programme for Elementary Schools, high-achieving children can be promoted before the end of the school year.

3. *Values development.* The thrust of the New Elementary School Curriculum is the development of humanism and Filipinism, which may be defined as a sense of identity with the community and nation and a desire to contribute to national well-being.

4. *Staff development.* Efforts will be made to institutionalize continuing teacher in-service education so that after PRODED is finished an effective system will be able to maintain itself. One very important feature of the staff development component of PRODED is its Educational Reorientation Programme (ERP). ERP aims to train teachers and administrators in management skills and commitment to national goals. Approximately 517 field managers and 320 training managers will be responsible for the design and implementation of all PRODED training and development activities.

5. *Upgrading physical facilities.* School buildings should be greatly improved as a result of the civil works and physical facilities components of PRODED. However, local efforts will be necessary to supplement what PRODED can provide.

6. *Developing of supplementary learning materials.* Materials geared to the unique needs of children in specific geographical areas will be prepared locally in curriculum-writing workshops.

7. *Expanding the special education system.* Schools are expected to develop special education programmes if they have none, and to expand their existing programmes. The Government takes the position that if gifted children are not provided with appropriate and adequate education, they will soon become disadvantaged.

8. *Improving school management.* School management and the professional development of principals will receive more attention. It is imperative that sub-national officials closely monitor and supervise the elementary schools to assure that they are operating in accordance with PRODED objectives.

9. *Returning to the basics.* Since 1979 the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports has concentrated on improving the teaching of basic skills. Schools have been encouraged to emphasize skills in language and mathematics so that primary school pupils will be better equipped for learning at higher levels. This "return to the basics" should improve achievement levels and prevent children from dropping out of school and repeating grades due to inadequate mastery of basic skills.

10. *Improving health and nutrition programmes.* Health and nutrition education is being intensified to better serve schools and the immediate community. Well-equipped school clinics will be set up to service schools with poor access to health facilities. The School Health and Nutrition Centre of the Ministry will also train all elementary teachers as health guardians in support of primary health care. Because of a shortage of health personnel in the remote areas, health auxiliaries will be trained in two- to three-month intensive courses.

11. *Approaching regional equity.* PRODED is attempting to redress educational disparities between and within different regions. In the allocation of services and resources, depressed, disadvantaged and underserved areas will be favoured in order to bring them up to the national standards for participation and survival, achievement, teacher-pupil ratio, literacy, physical facilities and human and material resources. To meet the divergent needs among and within regions, alternative educational programmes and delivery systems will continue to be implemented.

In the formal system, throughout the regions, staff training, and allocation of school resources, school supervision, evaluation, and promotion of students will be improved. The non-formal system will be further strengthened through setting skills standards and providing guidance and counselling for out-of-school youths. There will be greater co-ordination of policies, programmes and projects among the various agencies concerned with non-formal education in each region.

Regional priorities for teacher training are being established based on regional capacities and needs. To ensure the continued service of qualified teachers, incentives such as higher compensation and better certification and testing schemes are being tried. The present teacher education curriculum and methods are being examined to ensure that graduates will fit the requirements of the teaching service.

These and other efforts to provide primary education to the greatest possible number of children in the Philippines are described in more detail in the following sections of this chapter.

Providing education to disadvantaged groups

Girls. Unlike other developing countries, the Philippines does not face a problem in the education of girls. Filipino parents would generally like both their sons and daughters to be educated. Girls and boys have virtually equal access to educational opportunities. Statistics show that for the school year 1980-1981 there were 3,864,930 female school entrants (48.73 per cent) and 4,066,234 male entrants (51.27 per cent.) This is a difference of only 2.54 per cent in favour of boys. It is interesting to note that in government primary schools there is a higher drop-out rate among boys (4.19 per cent) than among girls (2.97 per cent). The reason could be that more boys than girls leave school to join the labour force.

Rural children. Educational needs in rural areas are met by providing an elementary school for almost all of the 40,786 *barangays* (villages) in the country. Primary schools (grades I-IV) are established in settlements smaller than the *barangays.*

The Learning Centre on Wheels Project is designed for deprived children at the pre-school level. Mobile learning centres provided with audio-visual aids and other instructional materials visit sites with 50 pre-school children (25 per session) for six hours a week. This project was first tried in two deprived and underserved urban areas in Metro Manila and should be successful in reaching pre-school children in deprived rural areas.

Special Education Centres are being established to serve gifted and handicapped children in the rural areas. To date there are 22 such centres in the country.

A Supplementary Feeding Programme project aims to help overcome nutritional deficiencies among school children by providing supplements to the home diet and fostering proper health and eating habits. Supplementary feeding is given in the form of snacks, lunch supplements and hot lunches prepared from foreign food donations, indigenous foods or a combination of both.

During the 1982-1983 school year, 7,912 schools and 1,577,012 beneficiaries in mainly rural areas received foreign food donations. Cooperative for American Relief Everywhere (CARE) provided for 4,433 schools or 880,518 beneficiaries, Catholic Relief Services (CRS) donated food to 257 schools or 150,000 beneficiaries and the World Food Programme (WFP) supplied 3,222 schools or 546,494 beneficiaries. Indigenous food for a total of 2,672,164 beneficiaries was supplied by the Applied Nutrition Project of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports.

The Rural Uplift Movement pools the resources of school, church and community for effective community development. The movement's philosophy is to give people problem-solving skills for self-reliance.

Children in remote and isolated areas. In order to provide education to learners in remote and isolated areas where resources are inadequate, multi-grade and combination classes are organized. Multi-grade classes consist of three or more grades in a class under one teacher, while combination classes are made up of two grades with one teacher.

Project Paglingap or Caring for Others is addressed to children of school age in depressed areas who lack access to schools because of the distance of the schools from their homes, the lack of transportation or inadequate facilities in existing schools. This situation is further aggravated by adverse geographical and weather conditions and also by poor health due to malnutrition and the lack of medical services.

Project Paglingap provides education in home economics, agriculture, fisheries, industrial arts, sports, health and nutrition, and community life so that children will appreciate the efforts of the government in promoting the people's welfare. The pilot schools of the project have living quarters for the pupils and teachers. Supervised dormitory living is a part of the pupils' education. Children produce nutritious food for dormitory consumption by raising vegetables, poultry, pigs and fish, though food may be provided by the parents or other sources when necessary. Basic health services are provided by para-professionals trained by professional health personnel. The school is viewed as a self-contained mini-community where parents may volunteer in providing guidance to pupils. Paglingap schools have been proposed for every school division and for the educable handicapped in selected urban centres.

Cultural minorities. National education funds have been extended to carry on various projects for the benefit of the cultural minorities. Elementary schools have been established in settlement projects and from 1972 to 1980 more than 5,000 children were enrolled in 450 schools run by 300 teachers in such areas. A total of 45,000 volumes of books and curricular materials were supplied.

In remote and scattered villages, teaching is done by missionaries or private citizens and by tribesmen themselves, and education in these areas is unstructured. Training in weaving, ceramics, shell craft and others is provided by both public and private agencies.

The Mobile Tent School Programme is attempting to set up a non-graded school system for nomadic groups like the Dumagats in Region II. This alternative system will try to respond to their socio-economic needs and their cultural values.

Children in the Muslim provinces of Mindanao and Sulu attend the *madrasah*, an Arabic word meaning school for which the plural is *madaris*. The *madrasah* is an Islamic educational institution for Arabic and Islamic studies. *Madaris* offer education at the elementary and secondary levels. Not all *madaris* provide complete courses from kindergarten through secondary school. A *madrasah* may offer only one or two years of primary or secondary education. Most of the 1,000 *madaris* in Region XII concentrate on teaching students in the lower grades. Instruction ranges from simple reading of the Koran to a full primary education. Curriculum methods of teaching and textbooks are substantially the same as those in the Middle East from where they were imported. Nearly all the *madaris* schedule their classes during weekends so that students from public schools are free to study there.

The total number of students enrolled in these *madaris* in 1983 was 131,979. There are plans for *madrasah* classes in Regions IX, XI and XII to be integrated into the formal system to hasten the assimilation of Muslim communities in the mainstream of society. For this purpose, an Inter-Agency Task Force and a Ministry Muslim Education Task Force have developed an accreditation scheme which will be implemented when funds are available. This will also make it possible to include these students in the national primary school enrolment figures.

The Special Action for Literacy Advancement of Muslims (SALAM) Project was started in 1973 to train functionally literate Muslim adults and out-of-school youths in Mindanao and Sulu so that they can take an active part in promoting the national goals of the country. Special learning materials were prepared to suit the needs and interests of Muslim children and youth and Arabic was taught by Muslim teachers.

Exceptional children. The Special Education Division of the Bureau of Elementary Education will begin a project in school year 1983-84 to increase the participation and survival rate of handicapped children with the help of the people in the community. The Barangay-Bound SPED Service Delivery System will provide education to the handicapped children who live far from existing special education programmes, who are refused admission due to their handicaps who because of poverty are forced to stay at home.

A publication called "Policies and Guidelines in Special Education for the Philippines" is in the final stages of preparation. The implementation of these policies and guidelines will be the subject of discussion and planning in regional and divisional seminars and training programmes. A "Handbook on Special Education" developed in a workshop funded by Unesco in 1981 is ready for printing. Designed as a guide for special education teachers, administrators and other related staff, it contains sections on causes of handicaps, special education management, curriculum development, teaching strategies, guidance and programme evaluation.

The Philippine Printing House for the Blind, which produces braille books and other materials for blind elementary and secondary students, will increase its output with the addition of three braille stereotype machines in 1983.

Intensive monitoring and supervision of SPED field programmes is being carried out by special education supervisors and co-ordinators at the national, regional and division levels. There are 95 administrators and supervisors who have received training in organization, administration and supervision of special education under a MECS–supported scholarship programme.

Reducing wastage

Attempts are being made to reduce educational wastage, particularly at the primary level. High drop-out rates have usually been attributed to factors like poverty, poor health and distance from school. Seldom is the classroom mentioned. A team from the University of the Philippines is currently investigating classroom instruction to see what factors may discourage children from remaining in school. The research is being carried out in the four regions with the highest drop-out rates, with assistance from UNICEF. Other projects to reduce repetition and drop-out rates are described below.

Project Stay and Balik-Aral. This is a project to retrieve school leavers and keep potential drop-outs in school until they finish grade VI. It is being tried out in 32 schools in four divisions of Regions VII and XII before being attempted nationwide. Feedback gathered from school officials and parents reveal that the use of self-learning kits has lowered the drop-out rate and improved the academic performance of pupils who were absent from class because they had to help their parents at home or in the fields.

Impact. This an acronym for Instructional Management by Parents, Community and Teachers, a system that hopes to deliver mass primary education to the in-school or out-of-school children, adolescents, and even adults. In this system, 180 pupils are placed under the instructional management of one teacher who is aided by para-professional tutors. Ultimately all learning could occur out of school with self-instructional modules, and children should be able to seek tutorial aid from parents, skilled persons in the community or high school students.

In-School, Off-School Approach. This scheme advocates the placement of 80 pupils under one teacher who may be helped by other resource people in the community. The class of 80 is split into two groups, each reporting to school alternately for one week. Self-learning kits are provided for off-school work, while in-school work is conducted in such a way that pupils' skills for independent study are strengthened.

Self-Learning During Absence From Class (SLAC). This is another project to raise the survival and participation rates in the primary schools. Funded by Unesco, Bangkok, the scheme is scheduled for implementation in 1983-1984 in the Bicol region. The implementors of the project will determine whether the academic performance of the children under this scheme compares favourably with that of children in the regular classes and whether it will help prevent drop-outs. The SLAC project gives the child assurance that he is welcome to return to class even after a long absence. It hopes to develop his sense of responsibility by encouraging him to study by himself a set of prepared modules covering the lessons that will have been covered in class during his absence.

Attendance policy. A MECS order entitled "Revised Policies in Pupil Attendance" encourages schools to retrieve potential drop-outs by adopting formal and non-formal education alternatives. It recommends that children who are frequently absent be allowed to catch up with their classmates through self-instructional modules.

Improving the supply of teachers

During the past decade, teaching as a career became less attractive than many other professions and vocations. Many teachers transferred to other jobs or moved to other countries. Fewer students were enrolling in teacher education and many of those who enrolled scored low marks in the National College Entrance Examination. This has adversely affected the supply of teachers, especially in the depressed, disadvantaged and underserved sectors where quality teachers are most needed. To arrest and correct this trend, the National Government has formulated plans to improve the supply and training of teachers.

To encourage more secondary school graduates to enter the teaching profession, loan assistance is given to qualified graduates who enroll in teacher education. To attract more men to enter the teaching profession, incentives such as scholarships and exemption from the usual entrance examination are offered to male applicants. In order to ensure that only quality secondary school graduates enroll in teacher training colleges, the cut-off score for those intending to take up other college courses has been raised. In 1982, the cut-off score for those enrolling in education was 50 per cent and for those enrolling in other courses only 40 per cent. Starting in school year 1983-1984, freshmen students in teacher education will come only from the upper 50 percentile of those taking the National College Entrance Examination.

In order to improve the performance of teachers, the pre- and in-service education programmes of the Ministry are being strengthened. A new teacher education curriculum provides for two general degrees; the Bachelor of Elementary Education and the Bachelor of Secondary Education. The new teacher education curriculum provides for the mastery of the basic primary subjects, includes new courses such as social philosophy promote desirable Filipino values, integrates theory and practice, provides for more field-based experiences and emphasizes the mastery of targeted competencies. In line with this new teacher education curriculum, the faculties of teacher training institutions are being upgraded.

Changing trends and practices in primary education require the continuing training and development of teachers. A number of in-service training programmes are held every year at the national, regional, division, district and school levels.

A Home Study for Teachers programme offers courses leading to a Master of Arts degree for the 60 per cent of the public primary school teachers who are assigned to rural areas and cannot attend regular college courses. This programme is home-based and self-directed, and uses a variety of educational media.

The Educational Reorientation Programme of PRODED includes formal and non-formal training of all teachers and school officials in the country. In this system, a Trainers Development Programme trains selected master teachers and school administrators to become trainers themselves. It is hoped that at the end of the programme the trained primary school teachers and school officials will be able to permanently serve all staff development needs.

Upgrading instructional materials

Efforts are being made to raise the quality of textbooks and instructional materials in the elementary schools. A projected change to improve materials development is the expansion of the present Textbook Board into an Instructional Materials Development Corporation to distribute materials, and an Instructional Materials Council to set standards for textbook adoption. However, no budgetary provision has been made for this expansion. In any case, the present ratio of at least one textbook per subject for every two pupils will be maintained or improved in the next few years.

Providing adequate school facilities

One of the biggest problems confronting our educational system is the perennial shortage of classrooms to house the growing enrolment in primary schools. In some areas, 50 to 55 pupils rather than the standard 40 occupy one classroom. Private buildings are being rented and this exacts a big expenditure from the MECS. Substandard classrooms naturally affect the achievement of school children.

In response to this need, the Government has launched a National School Building Programme. The Ministry of Human Settlements in collaboration with the Ministries of Education and Public Works also began the Bagong Lipunan School Building Project in early 1980 to meet a shortage of school buildings that is exacerbated by destructive annual typhoons. The Project has introduced prototypes of typhoon-resistant elementary school buildings.

Institutional mechanisms to support UPE

Planning. The Office of Planning Service of the Ministry has collected data on the educational needs of the various regions. Regional planning units prepare plans based on data from sub-regional levels, which is in turn based on information from planning units at the division and district levels. In this way the needs of even the remotest schools in the country will be addressed. Policy makers for primary education at the national level consult representatives of all sectors of the community, including educators, farmers, labourers, housewives and students.

Implementation. There are some micro-level institutions and personnel that deal with educational needs at the sub-regional levels, especially in depressed communities. Decentralized Learning Resource Centres (DLRCs) have been established in clusters of depressed, disadvantaged and underserved schools that may comprise a district or several districts. The Centres provide in-service training for teachers in the implementation of curriculum, develop indigenous instructional materials, functional literacy and occupational skills for out-of-school youths. At present, there are 830 DLRCs in the country.

Evaluation. To provide periodic feedback on the progress of the democratization of educational opportunities, evaluation teams have been organized at the national, regional and sub-regional levels. At the national level, such teams include the Monitoring, Supervisory and Assistance Team of the Bureau of Elementary Education and the Supervision, Monitoring and Evaluation Unit of the Project Technical Staff of PRODED. Regional Planning and Management Teams closely monitor and supervise the implementation of projects in the regions.

A national testing project under the Bureau of Elementary Education, the Preparation of Elementary Education Measures, provides instruments to assess pupil progress in the new elementary curriculum focusing on basic skills. Regional Assessment Committees have also been organized to regularly monitor pupils' achievement.

In order to develop a corps of well-trained educational evaluators in the country, PRODED conducted a course called on "Evaluation of Learning Outcomes in Elementary Education" for senior MECS officials from all the regions. These officials are expected to train classroom teachers and supervisors in the evaluation of elementary learning outcomes. Afterwards, evaluation centres will be established at the regional and sub-regional levels.

Staff development

In order to meet the training needs of all school personnel involved in providing universal primary education, a number of training programmes have been instituted. Supervisory Training and Effective Administrative Management is addressed to the chiefs of all institutions in the government, including the Ministry. The School Executives Development Programme aims to develop the leadership and management abilities of school superintendents, assistant superintendents, and central and regional department heads. The course is sponsored jointly by the Civil Service Commission and the Ministry, through the Civil Service Academy. The Development Programme for School District Supervisors is also jointly sponsored by the Civil Service Commission and the Ministry, and is designed to train school district supervisors in national development goals, educational leadership and human resource development. This course is conducted for four weeks at the Teachers' Camp in Baguio City. The PRODED Educational Reorientation Programme is a massive training programme for all teachers and school officials in the Ministry. Scholarships for study abroad are available through this programme for educational managers and teachers of science, mathematics and language. Other Ministry training and development programmes are conducted at the national, regional, division, district and school levels.

Target dates for UPE

A target date and yearly progress rates have been set for the universalization of primary education under the Decade of the Filipino Child National Plan and PRODED. These are summarized below.

The 1981-1982 *enrolment* of 8.7 million is expected to reach 10.04 million by 1987, an annual average increase of 2.90 per cent.

The 90.66 per cent *attendance rate* in 1981 is expected to reach 92.41 per cent by 1987, or an increase of .35 per cent within five years.

The *drop-out rate* of 3.63 per cent in 1981 will be reduced by .18 per cent annually to 2.73 per cent by the end of 1987.

Out of the 1.7 million children enrolled in grade I in 1981-82, 78.13 per cent are expected to have remained in school until 1987, an estimated increase of 8.25 per cent over the 69.88 per cent *survival rate in 1981.*

The number of *primary graduates* is expected to grow by .188 million over the .978 million in 1981 to a projected number of 1.16 million.

The 31:1 *pupil-teacher* ratio in 1981 is expected to reach 34:1 by the end of the Plan period.

The *retention rate* of 90.95 per cent in 1981 is expected to increase by 5 per cent by the end of the Plan period to an estimated 95 per cent.

The national benchmark of 42.89 per cent in pupil's *achievement* is targeted to improve annually by 2 per cent.

Language and UPE

The special linguistic features of the Philippines are important in planning for the universalization of primary education. In the early 1950s English was the medium of instruction in the primary schools. Children were exposed to this foreign language for five hours each school day and used their native language at home. There was no out-of-school application of the English learned. Since a number of children dropped out of school even before they reached grade IV, they reverted to illiteracy.

Sensing the gravity of the situation, some educators recommended the use of the native language in the first two grades. They believed that learning of content in the primary grades could be made more effective with the use of the vernacular, and that as long as a foreign language was the principal medium of instruction, Philippine culture would remain second-rate.

The Revised Philippine Educational Programme adopted the policy of using the native language as the medium of instruction in grades I and II in all public and private schools. Pilipino was introduced as a subject beginning in grades I and II. In grades III and IV English was the medium of instruction and the vernacular was the auxiliary language. Pilipino was used as the auxiliary language in the intermediate grades.

This practice was continued until the 1970s, when through the efforts of the then Pilipino Section of the Elementary Education Division of the Bureau of Public Schools, teachers were encouraged to use Pilipino as the medium of instruction for grades I and II. This situation arose because there were many native languages and dialects that required different sets of instructional materials, but textbooks and teachers' guides were prepared only for the eight major languages. A common national language had to be found. No language in the Philippines is the mother tongue of more than one quarter of the population.

Through the efforts of the Pilipino section and with the co-operation of the Pambansang Samahan ng mga Tagapagtaguyod ng Pilipino, the regions were encouraged to use Pilipino as the medium of instruction up to grade IV. This was already the practice in many divisions when the Bilingual Policy for Education was adopted in 1974. This policy provides for the use of English and Pilipino as media of instruction for specific subjects. English is used in the teaching of elementary science, math and English, and all other subjects are taught in Pilipino. Provisions for the use of Arabic in the Muslim areas and the vernacular as an auxiliary medium of instruction give more opportunities for children to attain basic education.

The Institute of National Language has assisted in the promotion of effective primary education through its efforts to develop and propagate Pilipino as the national language. Attempts are being made to enrich the Tagalog-based Pilipino by including words and expressions from other dialects.

The Summer Institute of Linguistics is an international organization that studies the languages of cultural minorities in remote areas, particularly those without written languages. Its mission is to put languages in written form and teach their speakers to read and write. The minorities are made to understand that their cultures and languages are of real significance and should be preserved in this fast-changing world. Through these efforts, the educational needs of minority children should be adequately met.

All of the plans and policies mentioned in this chapter have arisen from the need to expand educational access and quality during this century. The last chapter will discuss the outlook for reaching the goal of universal primary education by 2000.

Chapter Four

PROSPECTS FOR THE UNIVERSALIZATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

In the implementation of programmes for universalizing primary education in the Philippines, three problems have persistently challenged policy-makers. These are lack of accommodation, inadequate human and material resources and low quality of outcomes. Their resolution requires innovative plans and commitment from all educational sectors.

PRODED, which was described earlier, introduced projects, activities and studies that decentralized the administration and organization of primary education. This has strengthened planning and management at regional and sub-regional levels and made elementary education more responsive to local needs. At the national level, implementation of PRODED involved data gathering and cost analysts. The Office of Planning Service and the financial management system had to be reinforced by new skilled manpower such as systems analysts, economists and demographers, and this staff upgrading has improved the administrative capacity of the Ministry. Staff at all levels have gained valuable insights into the importance of universal primary education and valuable experience in its implementation.

The public school system faces two major problems in finding enough new teachers and retaining those already in the service. There is a shortage of qualified teachers in many regions. Mechanisms like the Decentralized Learning Resource Centres and Learning Action Cells have helped teachers for from Manila work out appropriate activities more independently. Better incentives for teachers have helped attract more teaching candidates, and enforcement of admittance standards has helped ensure their competence. Teachers have been trained to be aware of local needs and educational alternatives that will make it easier for more children to stay in school.

At the community level, the traditional high value placed on education in the Philippines is a positive factor in facilitating universalization of primary enrolment. Efforts, however, must be concentrated on keeping children in school and making the curriculum relevant to realistic life choices.

Much effort has gone into building and improving schools in remote and disadvantaged areas, and this will certainly make education available to more children. In planning school locations, rapport has been developed between educational managers and community members, and this has assured community support for school projects. Co-operation is a strong cultural value among Filipinos, and this makes the linkage to the community that is vital to universalizing primary education an easier challenge.

Inadequate funds is a problem common to most education systems that are trying to expand their facilities. This funding problem is being offset by teachers' cooperation in producing low-cost instructional materials.

This lack of funding also affects implementation of the mastery learning project. Though this approach allows the maximum benefit of education in each grade, it requires materials and manpower for evaluation. However, children and teachers are motivated to make extra efforts to master grade-level skills because of such incentives as acceleration. These efforts are contributing to higher achievement levels, one of the goals of universalization of primary education.

Despite such problems as inadequate funding and resources, primary education personnel have accumulated considerable experience in implementing the programmes and schemes described in this report. This experience will provide direction for efforts in the universalization of primary education. Continuing assessment will result in necessary adjustments that may well ensure that this goal is reached by the year 2000.

Appendix : GLOSSARY OF ACRONYMS

BEE	–	Bureau of Elementary Education
BSE	–	Bachelor of Secondary Education
BSEED	–	Bachelor of Elementary Education
BVNS	–	Baguio Vacation Normal School
CARE	–	Co-operative American Relief Everywhere
CET	–	Continuing Education for Teachers
CESDP	–	Career Executive Service Development Programme
CRS	–	Catholic Relief Services
DDU	–	Depressed, Deprived and Underserved
DLRC	–	Decentralized Learning Resource Centre
DPSP	–	Development Programme for School District Supervisors
DPU	–	Division Planning Unit
EDPITAF	–	Educational Development Project Implementing Task Force
ELC	–	Elementary Learning Continuum
EPMP	–	Educational Planning and Management Programme
ERP	–	Educational Reorientation Programme
ESMP	–	Educational Systems Management Programme
HST	–	Home Study for Teachers
IMPACT	–	Instructional Management by Parents, Community and Teachers

INL	Institute of National Language
INNOTECH	SEAMEO Regional Centre for Educational Innovations and Technology
ISOSA	In-School, Off-School Approach
JET	Junior Executive Training
KBI	Key Behaviour Indicators
LAC	Learning Action Cell
MECS	Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports
MHS	Ministry of Human Settlements
MLC	Minimum Learning Competencies
MLGCD	Ministry of Local Governments and Community Development
MOB	Ministry of the Budget
MPW	Ministry of Public Works
MSAT	Monitoring, Supervision and Assistance Team
NCEE	National College Entrance Examination
NESC	New Elementary School Curriculum
NETC	National Educational Testing Centre
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NRDCTE	National Research Development Centre for Teacher Education
NSD	National School for the Deaf
PASATAP	Pambansang Samahan ng mga Tagapagtaguyod ng Pilipino
PE	Physical Education
PEPT	Philippine Educational Placement Test
PD	Presidential Decree

PNSB – Philippine National School for the Blind

PPHB – Philippine Printing House for the Blind

PREEM – Preparation of Elementary Education Evaluation Measures

PRODED – Programme for Decentralized Educational Development

RECSAM – Regional Centre for Science and Mathematics

RELC – Regional Language Centre

RELC – Regional Educational Learning Centre

RPMT – Regional Planning Management Team

SALAMA – Special Action for Literacy Advancement of Muslims

SIL – Summer Institute of Linguistics

SLACK – Self-Learning During Absence from Class

SLK – Self-Learning Kit

SPED – Special Education

STREAM – Supervisory Training and Effective Administrative Management

TDP – Teacher Development Programme

TFP – Teacher Formation Programme

UL – University of Life

WFP – World Food Programme

YCAP – Youth Civic Action Programme

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

Korean education has witnessed many phenomenal changes in size, structure and function since liberation from Japan in 1945. For instance, the total student population, elementary school through graduate school, has increased from 1.5 million in 1945 to 10.78 million as of 1981. Specifically, by level of education, the elementary school population increased from 1.37 million to 5.59 million (fourfold increment), that of secondary school students from 0.13 million to 4.4 million (33-fold increment) and at the tertiary level from approximately 8 thousand to 800 thousand (102-fold increment), as Table 1 shows.

Table 1: Growth of Education Population: 1945-1981[1]

Year	*Elementary*		*Secondary*		*Tertiary*	
	Student	Growth Rate	Student	Growth Rate	Student	Growth Rate
1945	1,366	100	133	100	8	100
1955	2,949	216	748	562	85	1,087
1965	4,941	362	1,178	886	142	1,811
1975	5,599	410	3,150	2,368	297	3,801
1980	5,658	414	4,169	3,135	615	7,871
1981	5,586	409	4,397	3,306	797	10,196

In terms of the percentage of enrolment by eligible age groups, from 1945 to 1981, it is estimated that elementary school enrolment increased from less than 30 per cent to 97 per cent, that of secondary school from less than 4 per cent to 57 per cent and the tertiary level from less than 1 per cent to 18 per cent. Currently, almost all of the elementary school graduates advance to middle school, 97 per cent of middle school graduates enter high school and

85 per cent of high school graduates aspire for a higher education, though only half of them can be admitted to colleges and universities. In other words, the students' access to the next level of schooling has been greatly facilitated up through the high school level, but suddenly a bottle-neck occurs at the entrance into higher education. Hence, a host of students who fail to score well on the National College Entrance Examination, and particularly those who subsequently fail to pass the institutional screening administered by the well-established colleges and universities feel they have to repeat the national exam year after year. These repeaters, who are constantly preparing and cramming for the forthcoming year's examination, have caused a chronic societal problem and become a national issue in recent years. Because of the complexity of this problem, public criticism of the educational system has been increasing and drastic reforms demanded. However, the first concern of this paper is to trace the expansion of elementary education and analyse the causes of it.

Analysis of the causes of expansion

There are many causes for the explosive expansion of the education population in Korea. They are far-reaching and complex. For illustrative purposes, however, a historical review will be made first and then parents' endeavours to educate their children will be described.

All dynasties placed substantial emphasis on education. The first school system appeared in the year 373 A.D. The influence from China was substantial, as Korea adopted its writing system and literature, but the native Korean language remained unchanged. These borrowings of various systems from China were modified and adjusted to suit national conditions and then passed on to Japan, where they underwent further modification.

During the Koryo dynasty, there was a strong infuence of Buddhism on government. Private educational institutes were established for the first time in Korea when Buddhist priests began to teach local children at their temples. Later, the Yi dynasty eliminated Buddhism and introduced the Confucian system of civil service in a strengthened form, in which a scholar-literati class held all government posts by recruitment through national examinations. Schools, named Hyang-Gyo, were established in each county with the one highest national institute located in the capital city. Attendance at these schools was exclusively limited to noble-class males. However, there were numerous one-room school houses (Suh-Dang) which were private institutes for teaching Chinese characters and literature and were opened to those who were motivated to learn and able to pay the nominal fees. In a foreigners' view, it was described as follows:[2]

> Generally speaking, education is a private affair and has so been considered from the first. Every village has its little room, always in a private house, where the boys sit on the floor with their large-print books of Chinese characters before them, · · · However high may be the esteem in which letters are held, the ordinary teacher is a very humble member of so-called good society. · · · He is treated politely by everyone, but he is looked upon very much as a pensioner. He receives no salary, but the boys bring him frequent presents, and he ekes out a living in some way. But there is a more diginified side to the question. Teaching seems to be looked upon as a thing that cannot be estimated in money value.

Thus, the Suh-Dang existed in almost all the villages, catering to local children for their primary education, particularly for those who were socio-economically disadvantaged. Formal schooling for girls was not provided until the establishment of Ewha School in 1886 by Mrs. Mary F. Scranton.[3]

The Korean alphabet, Han-Gul, was invented 536 years ago by King Sejong, who was concerned for those who were too poor to attend schools and women, who were segregated from attending schools. Han-Gul is an efficient phonetic alphabet which was designed to replace the Chinese ideographs and is so simple to learn that one can master it within a day. The mastery of the Korean alphabet was lowly regarded in comparison with the mastery of Chinese ideographs, simply because Hangul was not used in official letters during the Yi dynasty period. But the use of Hangul became universal among the people after its invention. As a result, the illiteracy rate has been kept to a minimum. This is the historical foundation which awakened Korean parents to the need to educate their children whenever they could pay the expenses needed for it.

The Yi dynasty adopted a policy of strict isolationism for 300 years. This caused the stagnation and gradual weakening of the nation. A massive independence movement swept the nation on March 1, 1919, and as a result the Japanese modified their policies and then established the so-called Cultural Integration policy. Thus, Japan began to establish quite a number of schools for Koreans as Table 2 shows:

Table 2: Number of Registered Students[4]

Year	*1910*	*1919*	*1930*	*1937*
Primary Schools				
For Koreans	15.5	42.8	67.4	89.8
For Japanese	20.1	89.3	450.5	901.2
High Schools				
For Koreans	0.8	3.2	11.1	15.6
For Japanese	0.2	2.0	5.8	7.8
Girls High Schools				
For Koreans	0.4	0.7	4.4	7.1
For Japanese	0.5	1.9	8.3	11.9

Unit : 1,000

In 1939, there were 1,218,367 Korean and 92,842 Japanese students in the primary schools of Korea. Since the number of Japanese residents was 779,000 when the total population of Korea amounted to 24,326,000, almost every Japanese child of school age in Korea was in primary school, whereas only one out of three Korean children were in school; more than 60 per cent of Korean children were not able to attend any type of formal school.[5] Although the colonial Japanese government increased the total number of students, there can be no doubt that if there had existed a Korean Government, the number of Korean students would have increased much faster during the period. Korean tradition strongly favours education, and as one observer has written, 'The volatile, freedom-loving people of south Korea have high aspiration for educational and cultural advancement.[6] Thus, as the dam built by the Japanese colonialists collapsed in 1945, the tremendous Korean zeal for education resulted in the mushrooming of schools not only at the elementary level but also at the higher levels of schooling. In 1949, the Republic of Korea made legal provision for six years of compulsory education for children from six to twelve years of age.

In addition to this magnificient obsession of the Korean people with education, parents' recognition of the value of investing in their children's education is another determinant in the expansion of the education population in Korea. Moreover, the catastrophe of the Korean War in the 1950s was ironically a substantial factor in the education boom, particulary in higher education. The Korean War was the most devastating tragedy in the nation's history, but in retrospect, it provided a great impetus for the people to rise up from the ashes of destruction to forge their own destinies. Thus, since the war, aggressive rebuilding of the nation has been pursued by the government and the people in every sector of Korean society. In this context, education has always been regarded as a cohesive force in the rehabilitation of the nation. Government investment in education has consistently had a high priority, next in importance only to the economic development plan and security. Parents have keenly realized the importance of education for survival in emergency situations, as well as in ordinary circumstances. With this felt need and foresight, parents have placed first priority on their children's education, often even at the sacrifice of their own standard of living. William G. Carr, who witnessed the Korean War as a member of the American-Korean Foundation, highly complimented Korean parents:[7]

> Eighty three per cent of all secondary school costs are now met by parents, consequently, heroic sacrifices by the entire family are necessary to educate even one child. Yet the popular regard for scholarship and education is so great that such sacrifices are gladly met.

With rising hopes for a better future for their children through education, the public has been eager to gain more opportunities in education, and the higher, the better. In this regard, it is interesting to note Kim Sang-Hyup's statement that 'there were some who conceived of college education for their children as a sort of general insurance policy against unknown hazards in a rapidly changing world.[8] In addition to the various forms of prestige and privilege bestowed upon college graduates, it is the relatively high rate of economic return from university education in comparison with lower level education that has been a substantial incentive to go to college. For example, the average starting salary of university graduates in major industries is said to be about two times higher than that of high school graduates and four times higher than that of factory workers who have finished only junior high school.

In brief, educational achievement is a key determinant for upward mobility. Now, the level of educational attainment is not only a prestige symbol among the people but also a major criterion in the grading and selection of persons who aspire to get into decent jobs in modern Korean society. For the pre-war class structure was virtually wiped out by the Korean War. Under the constitutional provisions for individual freedom and equity, educational attainment has become a principal criterion for the assignment of persons to social and economic position. Ultimately, both parents and students have become highly motivated for education. This nation's widely spread respect for and recognition of the value of education has been the societal foundation for making the government's educational policies a sucess.

Chapter Two

STRATEGIES FOR UNIVERSALIZATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The strategies and approaches used by the Government to increase elementary education enrolment have been many and varied. A combination of available strategies for promoting elementary education has been both viable and necessary for the expeditious accomplishment of the goal of universal elementary education in Korea.

The political system is marked by two distinctive characteristics: its universality, and finality of force. Compulsory elementary school attendance has played a decisive role in the process of universalization of elementary education. Chin and Benne indicated that 'the changes enforced by political coercion, of course, need not be oppressive if the quality of our democratic processes can be maintained and improved.'[9] In this sense, the inauguration of compulsory elementary education by constitutional provision in 1949 is worth highlighting. The Constitution specified that 'All citizens shall have the right to receive an equal education corresponding to their abilities ··· compulsory education shall be free.' The subsequent Education Law of 1949 created school districts at the county level with corresponding boards of education.[10] In other words, at the outset, the idea of local autonomy in the administration of elementary education was implemented by law, which was helpful in promoting local initiative. The anchorage of a community school was envisioned in the law in order to best utilize parents' enthusiasm for the education of their children. In a sense, the indigenous idea of community-supported education, long traditional in Korean society, and the institutionalization of local autonomy of education in the United States were happily matched with the establishment of the Education Law of the first Republic.

With regard to financing of elementary schools, it was prescribed by law that expenses for elementary education be provided in part by the national treasury and in part through an education tax levied by provincial and municipal governments. The law also gave responsibility to the central government for subsidizing the expenses for regional equalization of elementary education opportunities. Provincial boards of education also required substantial subsidies for disadvantaged schools located in remote areas and on islands. In the 1960s, the county level autonomy of elementary education and the educational tax system were abolished, although the latter was recently resurrected in a modified form. Therefore, it is difficult to make an exact assessment of financial investment for the universalization of elementary education in Korea. However, it must be emphasized that the budget for elementary education has been the largest category in the total budget of the Ministry of Education for the past two decades, as Table 3 shows:

Table 3: Percentage of Expenses for Elementary Education out of MOE Budget

year	$\frac{B}{A}$	$\frac{C}{B}$	*D*	*Year*	$\frac{B}{A}$	$\frac{C}{B}$	*D*
1948	8.9	69.4		1970	17.5	76.5	96.9
1950	5.7	74.0		1975	14.3	67.3	97.2
1955	9.3	74.4	86	1980	18.9	62.2	98.2
1960	15.2	80.9	82	1981	18.6	62.8	98.5
1965	16.2	72.6	95	1982	20.7	62.6	98.5

A Government Budget
B Ministry of Education Budget
C Expenses for Elementary Education
D Percentage of Enrollment in Elementary School by eligible age group

Source: Statistical Yearbook of Education, M.O.E.

Thus, Kim Sang-Hyup commented, 'For years, the Ministry of Education has been concentrating its efforts on the administation of the compulsory elementary education to the near total neglect of higher education.'[11]

Secondly, the government's policy of transferring expenses needed for education to the private sector has been conducive in expanding educational opportunities in Korea, particulary in the universalization of elementary eduation. For the period 1945 through 1948, it is estimated that '··· about two-thirds of the operational costs of running the primary schools was financed by the U.S. Military Government and about 38 per cent of the school revenue at this level was raised through dues levied on members of the PTA for each school'.[12]

The first regime headed by President Syngman Rhee was unable to realize free elementary education as provided in the Constitution. According to the study quoted above, the central government could provide only 15 per cent of the revenue needed to finance primary schools, the local government only 10 per cent and the other 75 per cent of the funds for local schools was collected through Parent-Teacher Associations.[13] Even in 1974, it was estimated that 28 per cent of the expenses for compulsory education was collected through PTAs.[14]

The PTAs were introduced into Korean schools under the United States Military Government as a means to increase parents' participation in school affairs, and to solicit their help to supplement inadequate teacher salaries and improve school facilities. But the PTAs in practice operated merely as tuition collection agencies. After the inauguration of compulsory elementary education in 1949, a policy was made to collect PTA fees in accordance with parents' economic status. The Ministry of Education, for example, established differential categories of schools according to residential areas, such as schools in metropolitan areas like Seoul and Pusan, schools in major large cities such as provincial capitals, schools in small rural towns and schools in remote areas. Each of these schools had its own fee schedule. Each fee schedule, differing from category to category, operated on a sliding scale. Some allowance was made in the fee schedule of PTAs. Roughly 20 per cent of the families who were economically disadvantaged and all the children of the military, the police and educational personnel were exempted from the PTA fees. Other families paid fees on an ascending scale according to their economic status. Thus, parents were requested to pay varying amounts for each child who was attending elementary school. The classification of parents' ability to pay was first judged by classroom teachers and then finalized by the principal. Although the criteria applied were largely subjective and arbitrary in nature, parents remained highly co-operative with the schools. In a sense, the long cherished traditional obedience to school authority and respect for teachers' judgements were the foundations for the contemporary system of school fee collection.

Thus, parents' school payments provided a major portion of the budget, including important and substantial supplements to teachers salaries. In Chang 'Yung Chung's estimation, as of 1971 the parent's financial contribution amounted to 26 per cent of elementary school expenses.[15]

The government's persistent effort to enlarge and improve both pre-service and in-service training was a third important determinant in the universalization of elementary education. Public-supported Normal Schools which were equivalent to senior high school were established in every province. Thus, already in the 1950's all elementary school teachers had gone through at least high school, which was an educational attainment considered adequate in most developing countries at that time. Since tuition was free and teaching jobs were provided by the government immediately after graduation from normal school, normal school was very attractive to those students who were able, highly motivated, and somewhat socioeconomically disadvantaged. In the early 1960's these normal schools were tranformed into two-year teachers' colleges. Recently some of these two-year colleges have been upgraded to four-year senior colleges. As professional teacher education institutes, these colleges have definite goals to train competent teachers. In teacher education, formation of a unique Korean cultural identity and national character are emphasized together with such personality traits as diligence, open-mindedness, co-operation, and discipline both in and out of the classroom. The qualification of teachers in terms of educational attainment has increased yearly as Table 4 shows.

Table 4: Level of educational attainment of elementary school teachers

year	*'52*	*'64*	*'70*	*'75*	*'82*
Level					
High school	98.4	84.1	59.4	50.5	29.1
Junior college	1.5	12.1	32.0	44.1	58.3
Senior college and above	–	3.7	8.6	5.4	4.9
Others	–	–	–	–	11.7

Source: Ministry of Education

Needless to say, the government's policy to increase the length of training for elementary school teachers is designed to improve the quality of education, for increased training will be reflected in improved instruction for and guidance of students. In the course of the development of teacher education, the United States government extended special aid for faculty development programmes at teacher's colleges. It was estimated that almost $9 million was used on this programme and 65 person-years of graduate and professional training of teacher educators was provided by George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee in the 1950s and early 1960s.[16]

Fourthly, the educational policy of automatic promotion of students to the next higher grade and special consideration for disadvantaged students have been effective in attaining low drop-out rates in elementary education. Children in elementary school are all promoted automatically to the next higher grade. This humane approach has been adopted for all eligible age groups at the elementary level in order to provide education on a more egalitarian basis. Government policy regarding compulsory elementary education has been inclined to emphasize universalization of educational opportunity; that is to say, a vision of equity rather than quality. Thus, at all grade levels, almost all children entering elementary school complete the programme within six years. There have been few drop-outs and very few repeaters. In 1967, according to a study, the attrition rate was estimated at an average of 2.1 per cent in the Seoul area at 0.8 per cent and the provincial areas at 2.7 per cent respectively. The causes for dropping-out were varied: poverty 54.1 per cent, not clear 17.4 per cent, diseases 11.6 per cent, dismissal 3.7 per cent, death 3.4 per cent and transfer 1.4 per cent.[17] Since elementary schools are located within commuting distance (on average 4 Km) by government policy, 99.5 per cent of students attend school from their own homes.[18] With regard to the government's effort to promote school attendance of the disadvantaged, it should be emphasized that Korea has had a relatively low level of urban-rural income disparity in the 1950s and 1960s. Mainly because of the Korean war, people in general were in a state of poverty characterized by periodic hunger in spring-time in the 1950s and early 1960s. However, Korean society, through government policies, gave special consideration to the disadvantaged. As mentioned previously, PTA fees were exempted, and free textbooks and lunch services were made available to disadvantaged students. In 1974, for example, it was estimated that '...

slightly less than one-fourth of primary school students received textbooks free of charge."[19] About one-third of primary school students received a meal provided by the government. Therefore, these policy measures of automatic promotion, close proximity of schools to the students, cheap school uniform fees, and free supply of textbooks and lunches to disadvantaged students were responsible for high attendance and a very low drop-out rate in the elementary schools.

Chapter Three

TASKS AHEAD

The universalization of elementary education in Korea during the past three decades has facilitated national development in many ways. As mentioned earlier, under Japanese domination less than 30 per cent of the eligible age group of Koreans was enrolled in primary schools and, even worse, secondary and tertiary education opportunities were unavailable. As access to elementary education became universalized, it made secondary education popular, for those who finished elementary education were motivated to continue their education as far as their capabilities allowed, provided their parents could afford it. Thus, the universalization of elementary education has had a much multiplied effect on the nation's rebuilding.

First, as illiteracy was eliminated by the universalization of fundamental education, a firm foundation for a mass-participatory democratic system has been established for political development in Korea. In other words, the minimum essentials of knowledge as a base for informed judgement of political issues, which is a key element in voting behaviour in a parliamentary system, have been provided by popular elementary schooling in Korea. In this regard, the political socialization process in elementary schooling cannot be overlooked.

Secondly, in relation to Korean economic development, the universalization of elementary education and popularization of junior high schooling created the supply of semi-skilled manpower which was needed for industrial development during the 1960s and 1970s.

Thirdly, apart from the political and economic effects of universalized primary education on national development, some indirect but significant contributions need to be highlighted. For example, without the internalization of modern value systems which has been emphasized in civic education in elementary and secondary schools, it would be difficult to achieve the national goal to reduce the birth rate from 3 per cent to 1.6 per cent over three decades. For rational thinking and responsible parenthood are directly related to the level of educational achievement. It has been generally proved that the proportional relation is reversed between the level of educational achievement and the birth rate.[20] In an empirical study in Korea it was also found that there is a general trend of reversed relationship between the parents' developmental value and their number of children.[21] Needless to say, a futuristic orientation and an enlightened commitment to a better life, which have been cultivated by modern education in Korea, motivate Korean people for national development as well as for betterment of personal welfare. Therefore, it can be safely concluded that universalized elementary education and the popularization of secondary schooling have been a firm cornerstone of the rehabilitation of Korean society from the ashes of total devastation by the Korean war. It is a self-evident truth that, however vigorous are governmental polices and the institutionalization of them, they may not be effective unless the people are equipped with an enlightened intellect and a motivation for achievement activated by various forms of education.

There are however, many problems unsolved and conditions needing improvement in elementary education in Korea. In the following section, some of these problems will be described and possible solutions set forth.

Classroom size

Generally stated, the increment in student enrolment in elementary schools must be accompanied by an increment in physical facilities, teaching personnel and financial resources. Otherwise the quality of education will drop. Unfortunately, for the past three decades classroom facilities have not kept pace with the expanded enrolment. As a result of the lack of space in elementary schools, the number of pupils per classroom was in excess of the legal quota of 60 all over the country in the 1950s and 1960s. According to a survey, as of 1967 those classrooms accommodating pupils in excess of 91, 81 and 71 constituted 7.1 per cent, 24.3 per cent and 22.2 per cent respectively, with the total percentage of all schools exceeding the legal number at 54 per cent. On the other hand, there were schools accommodating small numbers of pupils in the remote rural areas: the number of classrooms accommodating less than 50, 40 and 30 children constituted 13.8 per cent, 1.6 per cent and 1.3 per cent, respectively, of all the schools surveyed.[22] Overcrowding was worse in the lower grades (grades I, II and III) than in the upper grades. The degree of overcrowding also varied, according to the region.

Table 5: Number of Pupils Per Classroom by Region[23]

Region *N. of Pupils Per class*	*Special City*	*City*	*County*	*Others*	*Total*
91 and over	21.1	9.8	5.2	2.5	7.1
81 – 90	52.6	55.6	19.6	6.7	24.3
71 – 80	14.5	22.0	27.8	20.1	22.2
61 – 70	8.6	10.5	31.4	26.6	23.5
51 – 60	2.6	2.16	12.3	23.7	13.8
41 – 50	0.7	–	3.3	12.8	6.1
31 – 40	–	–	0.3	4.1	1.6
Less than 30	–	–	0.1	3.4	1.3
N	304	277	730	786	2097
Average	83.39	81.53	71.73	62.09	71.10
Standard Deviation	9.98	8.80	12.03	15.29	15.15

In an attempt to alleviate overcrowding in the lower grades, a temporary administrative allowance was made to introduce a system of two or three shifts. According to the study cited above, the nation-wide percentage of classes which operated on the normal basis (one-shift) was 85.6 per cent, while two-shift classes constituted 13.9 per cent and three-shift classes constituted 0.5 per cent of the total schools surveyed. When the schools which practised two or three-shifts were broken down by region, it was found that the major metropolitan cities constituted 21.1 per cent, cities 23.1 per cent, county level towns 10.5 per cent and other areas 11.1 per cent.[24] In other words, the schools in the densely populated areas have had to adopt the two or three-shift system more than the other rural areas.

The appalling situation of having two or three shifts has been alleviated during the past decade by successful economic development, which enabled the year by year expansion of school facilities, and by population control. Thus, it is now rare to see the two-shift practice even in the densely-settled sectors of the metropolitan areas.

However, crowded classrooms still exist in metropolitan areas. As of 1978, the number of pupils per class was on average 61 in cities and 72 in cities such as Seoul and Pusan, whereas it was 45 in rural areas.[25] On the whole, the number of pupils per classroom has been reduced considerably, although it varies from place to place. Due to population migration into urban areas, the class size in rural schools has been decreasing, whereas the reverse trend is occurring ing in urban areas despite the government's vigorous efforts to reduce class size by putting more resources into the congested living sectors of metropolitan areas.

So far governmental policy has aimed at meeting the legal provision to make the class size 60. Since the reduction of class size requires an enormous amount of financial resources, it must be implemented on an incremental basis. Currently it is projected that the class size will be reduced to 55 by 1986 and to 45 by 1991.[26] The reduction of class size is a prime requisite for the realization of effective teaching-learning practices in elementary education. Therefore, optimization of the class size down to 30 should be one of the most pressing government priorites.

Instructional system and practices

The instructional system and classroom activities in elementary schools have been almost uniform in their traditional method of lecture-explanation and recitation. Such varied methods as question-answer, discussion, practical work periods and experiments were used only in limited cases. The nature of assignments required reading a certain number of pages in the textbook and summarizing the main concepts. Homework requiring creative and independent thinking was very limited. Neither teaching in class nor homework was providing sufficient opportunities for students to develop higher mental processes. These outmoded practices were mainly the result of inadequate training programmes and practices in the teacher training institutes, and partially because of the overcrowded classroom. As an example, according to a survey conducted in the 1960s on the teaching practices of colleges and universities in Korea, it was found that the most typical instructional methods were either dictation or lecture-explanation (63 per cent of the professors' reaction and 61 per cent of the students' response).[27]

Thus in 1970 a study team was invited to make a systematic evaluation of the Korean educational system with emphasis on searching for possible improvements of the instructional system and practices. Dr. Morgan, the team leader, stated that the focus of their study was, 'on those issues which would help the Korean Republic provide a better, more relevant education for more Korean young people at a lower unit cost and at a total cost not greater than the nation could afford.'[28]

To this end, the study team collected historical, cultural and educational data, including demographic reports, economic forecasts, manpower needs projections, educational fiscal data, current and long-range educational plans and such information as was available on educational objectives and attainment. They then proposed a new educational model which would require a number of changes in the Korean educational system, particularly in elementary and secondary schools. These changes included changing the basic instructional unit from the traditional class size to a larger grouping, introducing individualized instructional concepts and associated materials, modifying the role of the teaching staff and increasing the ratio of students to teachers, and using programmed instructional television and radio.

As an outcome of the study proposal, the Korean Education Development Institute (KEDI) was established and it initiated the so-called Elementary-Middle School Development Project to improve the instructional system and practices. The research team of the newly born institute determined that actual classroom instruction was often irrelevant and unproductive. Attributes of the worst classroom situation were identified as follows;[29]

> Firstly, the number of pupils per class is unmanageably large, making it difficult to increase instructional effectiveness. Secondly, it is impossible to provide an instruction which fully takes account of learner's characistics. Thirdly, the instructional guide is oriented

toward imparting knowledge to the virtual exclusion of efforts to develop inquiry and analytical skills. Fourthly, the instructional process is highly labor-intensive and routine providing limited opportunity for utilization of educational technology. The above-mentioned problems have constituted a vicious cycle, resulting in low levels of student achievement and lack of concern for humanistic education.

The KEDI's E-M Project was aimed at all primary and middle schools in the nation to improve the effectiveness of the instructional system. It had the ultimate purpose of devising a more effective instructional system, viable in the indigenous setting of Korea. Thus, it took on the characteristics of a long-term project which required the full-cycle of research-development-tryout-implementation.

The KEDI instructional system model had five stages for a learning task: Planning, Diagnosis, Teaching-Learning, Extended Learning and Evaluation.[30] In the planning stage, teachers make lesson plans and management plans for learning tasks with a clear comprehension of the terminal objectives and the structure of the learning task, through careful analysis of the teachers' guide provided by the KEDI. In the diagnosis stage, teachers identify the specific deficiencies of students in prerequisites for the learning task and make provisions for remedial work. Diagnostic test materials are provided by the KEDI. Actual teaching and learning activies take place in the third stage using approximately two-thirds of the total instructional time allocated to the unit. Administration of formative tests, and provisions for enrichment, accelerated and supplementary learning take place in the extended learning stage. Evaluation is the last stage, when a test is administered. The instructional system model and the materials developed for it went through a series of tryouts from 1973 to 1980. The experiment was nation-wide and participation was on a voluntary basis. The number of students in the pilot study programme was quite extensive. For instance, in the fifth comprehensive demonstration, the number of students in the experimental group was about seven thousand and that of the control group about three thousand. At the fifth comprehensive tryout, the last of its series, all subjects covering all grades of primary school were examined in organized large scale experimentation. Analysing the accumulated data in varied forms, the study team synthesized them and made the following conclusions.[31]

Firstly, the new educational system contributes to improvement of student achievement. Looking at the results of five comprehensive tryouts, the achievement levels of the experimental group have shown 8, 10, 12 and 13 points higher than those of control groups in lst, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th comprehensive tryouts respectively. In addition to student achievement, the points scored in basic learning skill test of experimental group was higher than that of control group, and the achievement of middle school students who had been exposed to the new educational system in primary schools was higher than those of students from non-pilot schools. These results showed that the application of the new educational system brought a great deal of improvement in student achievements.

Secondly, the new educational system contributes to the formulation of desirable learning attitudes. According to teachers' opinions, the self-directed learning and co-operative learning gained currency among pilot school students, whereas the rigid teacher directed instruction was the norm in control schools. It was also proved through classroom observations that students in pilot schools were more active in expressing their views than their counterparts in control schools. And students learning habits improved: students were more inquisitive and their answers were more to the point after the application of the new educational system. These results reinforce the belief that the new educational system enables students to cultivate a positive attitude toward learning.

Thirdly, the new educational system contributes to improvement of rationality in school management. By introducing management by objectives (MBO), teachers were given opportunities for group thinking, with a resultant improvement of rationality in the decision making process. Since management objectives were the products of group thinking, they were reasonably attainable. Consequently, the consciousness of participation was enhanced among teachers and this gave rise to a tendency of linking their personal objectives to organizational objectives. The provision for sharing of roles in preparing for instruction encouraged co-operation among teachers.

Fourthly, the new educational system contributes to enhancement of teachers instructional competency, most teachers (96 per cent) of pilot schools responded that their professional knowledge of instruction was improved by introducing the new educational system.

It was identified through classroom observations that the teachers of pilot schools carried out instruction with greater effectiveness than those of control schools.

In brief, the five comprehensive tryouts yielded empirical data in support of the effectiveness of the new educational system. The successful implementation of the tryout is owed not only to the inherent strength of the new educational system but as much to the unreserved support and co-operation of the teachers and administrators involved.

To check the possible reduction of regional disparity of educational quality through the introduction of new instructional systems, the KEDI team made a longitudinal study of the tryout results. It was found that the new educational system had a strong levelling effect on the disparity between urban and rural areas in qualitative aspects of schooling. As an example, at the outset, the base-line data disclosed a gap of 11-12 points in students' achievement between urban and rural areas. Rural areas showed lower achievement levels than cities both in the experimental and control groups. But after the fifth compreshensive tryout, the experimental group of rural areas showed higher achievement (76 points) than the control group of cities (70 points).[32] These results are indicative of the possibility of reduction in regional disparity of educational qualities through changes in traditional class activities and the supply of enriched materials. Some problems remain unsolved, however. Financial resources are needed for the nation-wide implementation of the newer instructional system, as are supplies of instructional materials. Teachers need re-training to provide them with the technical expertise required for adequate application of new methods.

Teachers' socio-economic status

The miracle of Korean development after its liberation from Japan and the devastation of the Korean War, is attributed to the high level of human resources that was developed early by popularization of education. And the governmental policy for economic development in the 1960s and early 1970s gave much support to the labour intensive industries which best utilize a diligent and devoted work force. There were a host of contributing forces and factors to make the development of education, society and the economy in Korea a Third World success story, as is well delineated by J.E. Jayasuria.[33]

It has to be emphasized, however, that the teachers' devoted service for betterment of education has been one of the key determinants. It has been suggested that the public cost of education provided is lower in Korea and that the public education system of Korea is more cost-effective than those to which it has been compared. Low costs have been actualized in two ways. Firstly, teachers are paid relatively lower salaries than those in other professions with equivalent levels of education and training. Secondly, class sizes are surprisingly large, though Korean people are accustomed to this. This has been of the utmost importance as a contributing factor in realizing the popularization of education in Korea, as it distributed the cost of instruction over more students, beyond the norm in other developing countries. Thus, a study team which made an analytical account of the relationship between education and development stated that, 'What is striking is that Korea has been able to provide a well-trained teaching force at relatively low cost.[34]

Bluntly stated, as Korea's economy grows, the teachers in elementary schools increasingly feel that they are unduly underpaid and in a sense that they are relatively deprived. The teaching profession, in general, is characterized by its dual or conflicting status: socio-culturally privileged, being respected superficially by the public, but mistreated in terms of remuneration. Needless to say, teachers who feel their profession has dignity and integrity can themselves behave with dignity and integrity. But when they feel they are mistreated by the public's derogatory attitude toward their teaching jobs, they may themselves begin to behave with inferiority complexes. Unfortunately there have been signs of this since early in the 1960s when economic development in Korea started to take-off. According to a study conducted around that time, primary school teachers perceived that their society rated them very near the bottom of the vocational prestige scale. They put only shopkeepers, farmers and skilled craftmen below themselves in social esteem.[35] This is a striking contrast to the traditional respect for teachers; that is to say 'the King, the teacher and parent are the trinity.' Thus, the problem of teachers' feelings of alienation from professional prestige has been chronic and not confined to the elementary schools. It is so serious that the increment of the attrition rate of qualified and experienced teachers has become controversial in Korean society. There are some deterrents to entering teaching for promising youth: poor remuneration, little intellectul stimulation to teach in over-crowded classrooms, and heavy work-loads with clerical chores not directly related to the instruction and guidance of pupils. There has developed a tendency for the graduates of teachers colleges, particularly those from the elite institutions, to evade the teaching profession. Currently, it is estimated that the annual rate of turnover of primary and secondary school teachers amounts to approximately five per cent. The difficulty of recruiting able and dedicated youth to the teaching profession, and the internal brain drain from teaching to prosperous business enterprises are serious enough to pose potential dangers in the future for quality enhancement of education. Education is a process of planned change in human behavioural patterns towards socially desirable directions. And the effectiveness and vitality of the educative process rests upon the teacher's dedication to teaching, his vision for the future and his planning ability. In a sense, education can be no better than the qualification and dedication of the educator. Therefore, the deterioration of teachers' qualifications and morale resulting from their lowered socioeconomic status may have a negative impact on quality education. An ad hoc committee of the Korean Education Development Institute for forecasting educational tasks ahead stated this problematic situation as follows:[36]

> The anticipated advent of a highly industrialized society in the 1980s clearly indicates that the quality of teaching personnel may well deteriorate unless the incentive structure of the teaching profession is drastically improved and the teacher training system is reformed.

Summary

Korea is unique in the ethnic, linguistic and cultural homogeneity of her people throughout her history. The long cherished respect for the educated man and widespread enthusiasm for education of children has been one of the key determinants in universalizing primary education. The governmental policy to put priority on the investment of resources in primary education has also performed a decisive role in achieving universalization of primary schooling in Korea. In the course of educational expansion, the government's use of the bulk of United States educational aid for construction of primary schools was effective. It is estimated that, 'Between 1952 and 1966 foreign aid to Korea for education totaled about $100 million. · · · About half of the $100 million was spent on classroom construction of primary and secondary schools and could therefore be considered to have facilitated directly the expansion of education.'[37] The willingness and devoted service of teachers should receive due recognition. In sum, many forces have operated in the past decades to account for the universalization of elementary education in Korea. Thus, it has to be made clear that the descriptive accounts as well as evaluative comments made in this paper on the subject are exploratory and subjective in nature.

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SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF VIET NAM

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE
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Chapter One

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

A historical sketch

In 1945, at the first session of the Cabinet Council, President Ho Chi Minh proposed a literacy campaign and three important decrees on education were signed by the Government:

a) Decree No 17S/L on forming a Complementary Education Department responsible for adult education;

b) Decree NO 19S/L on opening complementary classes at every village; and

c) Decree NO 20S/L on compulsory learning of Vietnamese, free of charge, so that every Vietnamese from 8 years old would, within one year, know how to write and read Vietnamese.

The literacy campaign involved voluntary participation of all strata of people comprising school pupils, students, workers, government employees, writers, actors and actresses, intellectuals, priests and Buddhists. Literacy courses were opened everywhere for people of all ages. Together with the literacy campaign, universities, colleges and vocational schools were opened, and new methods of learning and teaching were introduced.

In order to supply schools with enough teachers, all those previously working at universities, colleges, or secondary schools were assigned a teaching job. Many experienced primary school teachers were promoted to be teachers of secondary school with an appropriate job at the beginning classes. The old curriculum was followed with some corrections and Vietnamese was used as the teaching medium in primary and elementary schools, and later in 1950 it was used in universities and colleges.

The new education system consisted of three levels: primary, secondary (with junior high classes of four years, and special secondary classes of three years), and university. Free education and free enrolment for all children from 7-13 years of age were also established.

In 1950, the Cabinet Council adopted the draft educational reform aiming at establishing a people's democratic education based on three principles: national, scientific, and popular, and abolishing everything from the old education system.

The new educational nine-year schooling system consisted of three levels, while further education comprised a two-year preparatory course.

There was a basic change in the content of education. Foreign languages, painting and music were not introduced for conditions were not favourable, but some new subjects were included in the curriculum such as news-politics and labour production. Stress was laid on revolutionary literature, history of the Vietnamese Revolution, and geography of Viet Nam. More practice lessons were added to subjects of natural sciences while lessening the theoretical ones, and keeping close to the reality of production and national defence. Nursery classes were opened for children of 6 years of age in 1952 to improve the educational quality of Level I. They were taught to read and to write in preparation for primary education.

As the school population grew quickly, more schools were opened; especially primary schools. At every village there was at least one. Many of these schools were set up by the people. Since 1954 most of the primary teachers and then a number of teachers of Level II education were passed on to the people for their up-keep. This helped general education to develop all the more quickly. The following figures from North Viet Nam only, may serve as an illustration:

	Level I			Level II			Level III		
Year	*Schools*	*Teachers*	*Pupils*	*Schools*	*Teachers*	*Pupils*	*School*	*Tea.*	*Pup.*
1945	3,010	5,552	178,683	–	–	–	–	–	–
1955	4,128	16,013	654,722	338	1,595	55,608	29	252	5,755

The liberation of South Viet Nam ushered in a new era for the Vietnamese revolution; The whole country advancing toward socialism. Together with the building of a new education, literacy and complementary courses were opened for working people, cadres and youths. Elementary and nursery classes were formed everywhere. In order to meet the ever-growing demand of the people, teacher's training schools were increased and education management reorganized.

The old educational 12-year schooling system was temporarily used, but textbooks and curriculum were replaced. Schools were opened for working people and their children, in the countryside, mountains and new economic resettlement zones. Teachers, including those who had served in the old regime, were employed by the people's government. Private schools were made public. A refresher course programme of politics, teaching methods and developing specialities was held every summer so that education in the North as well as in the South soon became unified.

In 1979, a resolution on reformed education was passed, which included the universalization of education for people in order to promote production, culture and ideology and science and technology.

General school system

The present system consists of two levels (not including kindergarten and infant classes, which are preparatory courses.) These are basic general schools with nine years of learning and secondary general schools (three years). Kindergartens receive children from two months to 36 months old. Infant classes receive children from three to six years old.

Children enter basic general schools when they are six years old. There is a five year programme followed by a four year programme. The task of the basic general schools is to provide a broad education for pupils so that they may acquire a relatively complete general knowledge to become capable of doing labour work, choosing a career on their own and fully preparing for labour production, social activity and vocational training or for further study in different ways.

Secondary general schools comprise three years of learning from Form X to Form XII. The task of these schools is to complete the general education knowledge of pupils who have finished basic general education. Secondary general education school leavers may enlist in universities, colleges, vocational schools or skilled worker's training schools with a higher requirement of educational standards, or may participate in labour production.

There is another type of school called 'work-and-study secondary general education school' with a curriculum similar to that of the secondary general education school, but emphasis is laid on technical and labour production lessons.

For adults who cannot go to a formal secondary general school there are complementary education schools comprising in-service and part-time. Complementary education is aimed at three levels of knowledge:

a) *First level.* Complementary classes provide Level I general education with a view to consolidating and enhancing learners' knowledge and enabling them to solve everyday life problems. The curriculum consists of 600 periods, 315 of which are for Vietnamese, 253 for mathematics, and 30 for general science.

b) *Second level.* An education equivalent to that of Level I general education is provided for learners, but with a bias on general technology, production techniques and application of the knowledge acquired to everyday life; and

c) *Third level.* The curriculum is equivalent to that of secondary general education schools but with some modifications and simplifications. More practice lessons and application of technology are added.

Education management bodies

At the central level the following organizations are responsible for administration and management of general education together with the Minister of Education.

Pre-school Education Department. Responsible for the administration, management and inspection of nursery education, for research on nursery education and for opening refresher courses for

Table 1. The system of general education

Age			*Form*
17			XII
16	SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION SCHOOL		XI
15			X
14			IX
13	BASIC	LEVEL I	VIII
12	GENERAL		VII
11	EDUCA-		VI
10	TION		V
9	SCHOOL		IV
8		LEVEL II	III
7			II
6			I
5	NURSERY AND INFANT CLASSES		
4			
3			
2	KINDERGARTEN		
1			

teachers, for the development and bettering of the quality of nursery education;

Board of Nursery Education Research and Reform. Responsible for research and reform on the content and methods of nursery education;

Level I-II Education Department. Responsible for administration and inspection on educational work of Level I-II schools;

Secondary General Education Department. Responsible for administration, management and inspection of Level III schools;

Complementary Education Department. Responsible for administration, management and inspection of complementary education in order to improve the quality and develop the movement;

Board of Complementary Education Research and Reform. Responsible for research on and reform of the contents and method of education.

Political Education Department. Responsible for political education and promotion, for all education personnel;

Department for further Education and Training. Responsible for research, management and inspection of further education and training for teachers and management cadres, for management of teacher's training colleges and universities;

Department for Research and Reform on Teacher's Training. Responsible for research on the content and methods of teaching and training at teacher's training schools.

National Institute of Educational Science. Responsible for research on theoretical and practical problems relating to psychology, pedagogy, content and methods of education, school management and administration, school regulations, equipment and sanitation;

Educational Publications Office. Responsible for printing and publishing books on education, compiling textbooks, reference books, teaching guides... and for library activity;

National Corporation of School Equipment. Responsible for production and supply of school equipment, and for guiding schools in using or making equipment.

Central Board of Educational Inspectors. Responsible for the supervision and inspection of the implementation of educational policies and regulations, in order to enhance cadres' sense of responsibility and discipline;

Educational Personnel Board. Responsible for problems concerning employment of teachers and education cadres, and wages;

Planning and Financial Department. Responsible for problems concerning planning, statistical data, finance, and material for construction.

People's Teacher's Newspaper Office. A mouthpiece of the Ministry of Education, responsible for editing and publishing a newspaper called People's Teacher' aiming at heightening cadre's idealogical and political understanding; and

'Educational Research' Magazine. Under direct control of the National Institute of Educational Science, responsible for editing and publishing the magazine's monthly issue.

At provincial level or cities placed under direct control of the central Government

In every province there is a Provincial Education Office responsible for the planning, implementation and development of education, for administering and inspecting the implementation of the curriculum, teaching methods of teacher training and general schools.

At district level

At each district, there is a District Education Council. It is placed under direct control of the Provincial Education Office. It is responsible for educational development in the district, for the supervision, administration and management of the general schools in the area and for promotion work among people for their involvement in education.

Management of Level I education

The Department for Level I Education is in charge of administration management and inspection of general education at that level. Every year, based on the National policies and analysis of the situation of the previous school year, it sets new tasks and objectives for the school throughout the country. In co-operation with the National institute of Educational Science, it solves problems or carries out research on matters concerned.

The Planning and Financial Department is responsible for outlining short term and long term educational plans with proposed norms. Education authorities at local level, taking the proposed norms into consideration, determine their own norms and report to the central level. With plans sent in from the provinces The Planning and Financial Department regulate and adjust them, then supervise and inspect their implementation in schools.

The National Institute of Educational Science, as stated above, is responsible for compiling curriculum and research on content and methods of general education in schools, and assisting the Department for Level I Education in supervising its implementation.

Mass organizations and the society also join in educating the children of Level I schools, in any way possible, by assisting and helping the school to carry out its task, by facilitating pupils' self learning at home, by supplying the school with money and material necessary for repair and construction of classrooms and other things.

Training teachers of Level I general education schools

In order to meet the requirements of the universalization of Level I education for children aged 6-15 years, the Government pays much attention to the training of teachers of Level I education both quantitatively and qualitatively. In the early 1960s there were a score of teachers of Level I education in every district, in northern provinces. But in the early 1970s, this figure multiplied until hundreds of them had been trained thoroughly.

After 1975, the requirement to open more schools in southern provinces became urgent. So one of the important tasks for educational management and administration bodies at the central as well as at the local level was to train teachers for these schools. Many experienced cadres and teachers from the north were despatched to the south. In the south, teachers who had served in the previous regime were employed, along with thousands of others who had been trained in crash courses in newly founded teacher's training schools or who had been working in the liberated zones.

At present, the training of teachers has been organized universally from central to local level. The Ministry of Education is responsible for the management and administration of teacher's training schools and colleges. These schools and colleges under the direct control of, and assisted by, local administrative organizations are responsible for the quality of teacher graduates.

In order to meet the present demand for teachers and the universalization of Level I education in the whole country in the 1990s, a Teacher's Training Council was set up in 1983 to adopt the training programme and the curriculum for teacher's training schools.

The training of teachers of Level I general education schools has taken many different forms, depending on the actual situation and the ability of each locality and of cadres and teachers. But in general, the training may be held in either of the following forms: long term, short term, full time, part time, in-service, seminar, or refresher courses. These courses may be held at provincial towns, district centres, teacher's training schools, or in the Level I general education schools or basic general education schools. Thanks to the universal programme and newly endorsed curriculum, teachers turned out every year are, in the main, qualified enough for the teaching job. Thanks to the development and enlargement of the teacher's training network and multiple forms of training, in northern provinces there is a teacher's training centre in every provincial and district town; many of these, large-scale. It is safe to say that the training schools in the north, are able to train teachers for Level I education schools. There is still, however, room for improvement as far as quality is concerned.

By the 1981-1982 school year, the number of student teachers was about 4,500; of these, 3,345 were in the last year of their training. More than 6,000 teachers were retrained.

In the south, the training of teachers has also been given special attention, and considered a decisive factor in the development, enlargement, and maintenance of the school network. Due to the economic and social conditions that are still unstable, and due to the fact that most of the teacher's training schools are newly founded and small scale, the enrolment and the training programme are not fixed; the demand for teachers is too great, the teaching body has not been able to meet all the requirements of the schools both qualitatively and quantatively, especially in those areas of Cuulong delta and high plateaux of central south Viet Nam where there are not enough teachers and many of them were not fully trained.

Teacher training in the south has progressed quickly. By the 1981-1982 school year, the number of student teachers was 13,097, three times greater than in the north; of these, 5,255 were in the last year of their training. Two hundred and seventy-five teachers were retrained.

The topography and the difficult economic conditions in the mountains are unfavourable for the development of education. On the other hand, the inferiority complex and the national customs and tradition of the minority peoples living in the mountains have made the undertaking even more difficult. Despite this, the problem of teacher training has been paid close attention. Teachers from the delta have been despatched to the mountains; practical education policies have been specially applied; more and more teacher's training schools have been set up and their enrolment has been given priority. At present, there are 2,000 student teachers enlisted every year and 1,000 teachers are being retrained.

Future task in teacher training

At the present rate, there are 10,000 teacher graduates and 5,000 teachers attending different forms of training, every year. These teachers, of course, cannot meet the present demand of Level I general education. In mountainous areas, and in areas unfavourable for school activity, more teachers are needed. The transfers of teachers working in these areas is overdue and the problem of teacher training is becoming more urgent. In the near future, the existing teacher's training school must, on the one hand, enlarge its scale of training, and on the other hand must improve the content and methods of teaching. Enrolment must be improved too; priority should be given to minority people in being admitted to teacher's training schools. Standardization and upgrading of teachers' quality must be done immediately. Retraining is also a matter to be solved at once.

Supervision and inspection bodies

Organization and inspection is one of the most important tasks in school management. It is carried out to ensure that the schools are working in conformity with the set objectives and programmes, with the decisions made by management organizations at all levels and with the national policies.

The process of management requires a close relationship between the superviser and the supervised; and vice versa, supervision and inspection in the process of management is necessary to maintain this relationship. It is the source of information that enables management and administration bodies to work effectively. Supervision is part and parcel of school management.

Article 28 Decision 615 O/D made in 1974 states: 'All school management and administration bodies are responsible for the supervision and inspection of all educational institutions under their control. The management and inspection bodies of each level of education are in charge of the inspection of the corresponding level of education'.

Central board of supervisors and inspectors

This includes a board of educational inspectors and an education office for Level I and II general schools. The task of the board of educational inspectors is to supervise and inspect the implementation of the national policies on education and the realization of the curriculum regulations and plans set by the Ministry of Education in order to enhance educational cadres' sense of responsibility and discipline and to strengthen democracy. Together with this board the education office for Level I and II general schools is responsible for the educational work of Level I and II general schools throughout the country. That means, it is responsible for the implementation of the decisions relating to speciality and management made by the Education Minister as well as the supervision and inspection of these decisions. Specialists working in the board of inspectors are inspectors by trade and those in the education office are methodologists.

Boards of inspectors and supervisors at provincial level

Boards of provincial inspectors are responsible for the implementation of the national education policies, education programmes in the provinces and things advocated by the provincial administrative committees and the Ministry of Education. The boards of provincial inspectors are also responsible for controlling the educational work of the schools in the provinces and for the supervision and inspection and settlement of complaints and disputes.

Provincial education councils are responsible for the administration and supervision of district education councils and the schools in the provinces. Besides, there are from 20-30 methodologists acting as part-time inspectors in each province. They are quality teachers in charge of supervisional work and the further training of for teachers.

In each district there are one or two inspectors and a general education group of from four to seven cadres. They are responsible for the administration and supervision of Level I and II schools in the district. There are also 15-20 teachers acting as part time inspectors in the district. Their task in the district is the same as those at the provincial level.

Other organizations in charge of supervision and inspection

A general education school is a base unit in the educational system. It is set up under the supervision and inspection of educational management bodies of all levels as well as the internal supervision and inspection of the headmaster and his assistants. Parallel to this, it is set under a mass supervision body of elected supervisors and inspectors serving a term of two years. This body is responsible for the supervision of the implementation of the educational policies, regulations and statutes; the exercise of the teachers' and pupils' rights and obligations in the schools.

Supervision and inspection activities in Level I schools

The content of supervision and inspection work in Level I schools includes:

1. Supervision – universalization of Level I education

Universalization finds its expression in the plan and criteria for educational development, initial investigation, statistical data and results after their use; possibility of universalization; the ratio of children of six going to school; school drop-outs and those returned; the total of classes and the number of pupils in each class as compared with the set criteria; the cause for increase or decrease; methods applied in universalization.

2. Supervision – education work

a) *Teaching activity.* The exercise of the curriculum and regulations; the preparation of the lesson plans and their presentation; tests, examinations and scoring; training gifted and helping slow pupils, evaluation of pupils' quality; learning at home; linking of theory with practice.

b) *Labour production activity.* The number of pupils taking part in labour activity; the number of labour days; forms of labour activities; results in terms of economy and education.

c) *Social activity.* Types of social activities; number of pupils taking part; results; types of collective social activities; seminars; artistic, sports, club activities; recreational games; keeping hygiene and prophylatic measures.

d) *Factors that help to better the educational quality.* Forming of new type of teachers with a sense of responsibility toward pupils, sense of devotion; building teacher's collectives; exchange of good experiences in building exemplary education units; teachers' self training and self instruction; building a monolithic block of teachers and other school personnel; improving the material and spiritual life, and health care of teachers; the exercise of state policies concerning teachers' rights; supervision over the management of headmasters; supervision over the promotion work among the people in contributing to the development of education; co-ordination of the school and pupil's parents association in the educational contents and methods; education inside and outside the school; popularization of a cultured way of life among pupils', parents and other people.

Forms of supervision and inspection activities applied to Level I General Schools

a) *Interview* (including interviews in writing). This may be done by means of exchanging views and reports.

b) *Field study* by attending classes; observing pupil's activity; instant checking after a lesson.

c) *Investingation of the papers concerned.* After the inspection things should be adjusted or rectified by applying laws and decrees, policies or regulations.

Adjustments and rectifications can be done by economic measures; material encouragement; by political and idealogical education; encouragement and emulation.

Popular means of communication

Mass media are controlled by the state and are concentrated on social progress.

The Ministry of Education has been co-operating with radio, television and press in their undertaking to help the schools to carry out their task of realizing Level I popularized education and improving the qualification of primary school teachers.

The project includes:

a) Helping the schools to practise their extra-curricular educational courses to support compulsory courses of learning;

b) Supplying the schools with up-to-date information in order to make courses of learning more lively;

c) Retraining teachers;

d) Disseminating information in such a way that everybody in the community can manage to give their children education at the right age, and to give them enough time for self-training to ensure their average ability of academic achievements, not to interrupt their schooling and at the same time to help people (especially those who are still young and able labourers) have chances to regularly revise what they have achieved at school;

e) The Voice of Viet Nam has two transmissions (15 minutes each) for schools. These are radio programmes for pioneers and small children. There are two transmissions for teachers in the morning and in the afternoon and a 'Culture and your life' radio programme. In addition to these the daily radio programmes include a special programme for youth (15 minutes) and for women (15 minutes). In each programme satisfactory time is spared for Level I popularized education.

The state and other local television network also transmit a programme called 'Little flowers', normally 15 minutes, on Tuesdays, Saturdays and Sundays. The programme not only gives school children and pioneers entertainment but also knowledge of science and learning methods.

The People, (a national quality paper) *The Pioneer, Vanguard, Women, Science and Your Life* and *The People's Teachers,* are papers and magazines devoting space for the aims of Level I popularized education.

School equipment

The institution responsible for school teaching aids and equipment is the Central Company of School Equipment controlled by the Ministry of Education, which is concerned with the design and production of teaching aids.

Section 22 in the 'Teaching Aids for all Levels of General Education Schools' shows ten items for Level I schools including;

a) A set of rulers and chalkboards for maths;

b) A set of magnifying glasses for subjects on popular science; and

c) A globe for geography, a subject in popular science.

Though much has been done, not all schools are well equipped. Nearly 100 per cent of the schools have been equipped with the set of rulers and chalkboards, but only about 10 per cent of them have been supplied with magnifying glasses.

Financial support for Level I popularized education

Sources of support for education in general and for Level I popularized education in particular come from investment by the state (coming from budgets of the whole nation, of the province and district); the village budgets; contributions of collectivized economic zones (farming co-operative, handicraft unions, industrial enterprises, state farms and other local social organizations; contributions of the people; and savings earned by teachers' and pupils' labour production. Further capital comes from foreign countries' financial aid.

Recently the state has given permission to basic education schools and Level I general education schools to have funds for school welfare. Thus from these funds come the annual important financial support for Level I and Level II general education.

Capital invested for Level I schools

The capital for Level I schools is divided into capital for regular expenses (elastic capital) and capital for irregular expenses (fixed capital) which includes capital for the building of material bases and expenses for equipment and teaching aids. From 1976 to 1980 the money invested for general education was from 3 per cent to 4 per cent of the state budget.

Details are shown in the following table:

	1976	*1977*	*1978*	*1979*
Total expenses for General Education as compared with the state budget.	3.4%	3.6%	4%	3.6%

On the provincial scale the investment for general education as compared with the total expenses of the provincial budget is often about 15 per cent. In a number of the northern provinces the expense for education grows much bigger as compared with the provincial budget. This is due to the developing educational tradition and to the special concern given by local authorities. This proportion in the case of Ha Nam Ninh and Ha Son Binh in the following table can serve as an example:

	1976	*1977*	*1978*	*1979*	*1980*
Ha Nam Ninh	14.3%	17.9%	19.7%	21%	25%
Ha son Binh	14.3%	17.9%	19.4%	20.8%	25.1%

During the past two decades, the system of general education, particularly Level I education has been expanded and developed in the northern provinces on a large scale and at the fastest rate ever known in Viet Nam's history. Schools have been built with multi-storey buildings and are well-equipped with teaching aids, laboratories, school yards, playgrounds, sports grounds, hostels for teachers and enough seats for Level I and Level II children. This has sometimes been done through the large contributions of village communities. Of the total state budget for education about 50 per cent is spent on Level I and II schools.

The constitution guarantees that education is the right and obligation of every citizen, the state takes steps in carrying out the policy of compulsory education, free education, supplying grants and creating favourable conditions for working people and their children to have equal opportunities in education. In 1974 the state decided to abolish school fees, nationalize schools of all levels and began to supply grants for children of martyrs, disabled soldiers and those from poor families; and exceptional children. Textbooks and references for teachers were also made free. The state also built libraries to be shared by all schools. Various local authorities have been taking measures to encourage disabled children. Thanks to this, children are free from care, aware of their responsibility, and can have the chance to realize not only their own rights and obligation in education but others as well.

Building new schools

The northern provinces built 20,000 classrooms for joint Level I and Level II schools or Level I schools only, during the 1970s.

In 1978 nearly 36.2 per cent of village budgets was used for the construction of Level I and Level II schools. Many villages have given the best of everything for school buildings; the best land, the best materials and the best teams of builders. Many localities, with their own manpower and materials and the state's financial support have completed the building of classrooms for permanent use in place of the old hurriedly built ones. Among them were villages which managed to build nice, airy, well-furnished two- and three-storey buildings, which have really become the local centre of culture and science.

In southern provinces the need to build Level I schools and joint Level I and II schools is the first consideration for educational administration at different levels. By the school year 1981-1982 there were 4,500 schools in the southern provinces, or 39 per cent of all the schools in the country.

During the past 20 years the contry has undergone three wars and a great deal of financial difficulty which has badly affected the development of education. Though much has been done in the building of schools, the people's requirements for education have not yet been met. This is particularly the case in the southern provinces where the demand for education is urgent. In the north, most Level I and II children are able to enrol for morning and afternoon school.

Table 2. Percentage of permanent school buildings and ratio of groups to classrooms

Zones	*Classrooms*		*Percentage*	*Ratio of groups to classrooms*
	Total	*Permanent buildings*		
Mountainous	25,405	14,734	58 per cent	1.7
Northern	89,969	54,182	60 per cent	1.26
Southern	59,588	28,292	48 per cent	2.13
Whole country	149,557	82,474	55 per cent	

Joint efforts in popularizing education

The experiences of those localities endeavouring to popularize education has revealed the power of joint efforts. This power originates from different production unions, (farming co-operatives, state farms), from other social organizations (unions of peasants, women's unions, youth union, association of pupils' parents), and from people's committees. The Vietnamese peasants are eager for knowledge. In their efforts to rebuild their villages they are becoming exposed to new problems of science in production (new varieties, new breeds, chemical fertilizers, linked methods, engineering in agriculture). A new outlook on education and an appreciation of leisure life is something closely connected with essential needs of everyday life. To be able to apply science and technology one has to be well educated.

The joint efforts of different localities have an important influence on the popularization of education. These efforts may be spiritual or material.

Spiritual. Localities uphold the tradition of learning, emphasize the importance of learning and investigate the problems of education for school-age children and dropouts, take care of working people's education, decide the enrolment of children for nurseries and primary schools and take responsibility for achieving these aims.

Material. Local authorities look after adult education taking place in their production organizations, contribute efforts and money for school building and equipment of classrooms and pay attention to the teachers' everyday life.

Educational councils

An educational council has a staff consisting of representatives of the people's committee; principals of basic education schools; heads of nurseries; representatives of Centres of Culture; representatives of other social organizations in villages, (youth and women's unions), and heads of different organizations (health service, communication, culture, commercial associations, savings banks). The leadership of this council consists of the chairman of the Village People's Committee as the head and principals of basic education schools as deputy heads. At pre-school annual meetings and other routine meetings this council listens to reports about the development of education in the village, discusses plans of education for the whole school year, finds ways and means to ensure the success of plans and to get villagers involved in the cause of education in their own village. This council pays special attention to popularizing education for every school-age child who cannot go to school or has to drop schooling.

'Five good's family' The universal standards for this programme are: good production; awareness of a citizen's obligations (selling grain, following the state's policies, thrift, civilized life style, peacefulness); strictness about birth control; children's education taken good care of; and participation in educational work in the whole community.

This is a voluntary activity in the village and hamlet. A congress is held annually. Teachers of all classes participate in the meetings and discuss children's problems, their academic achievement and their morale. They also discuss what to do to help school-age children to receive an education, and how to prevent pupils from dropping out of school. Slow learners are also problems discussed at such meetings where pupils' parents listen to teachers' advice in popularizing education.

Support for teachers. Whether the popularization of education in the countryside is good or not depends on how much support is given to the teachers. Because of different speeds of the development of education, and different historical reasons many communities cannot supply themselves with teachers who are natives. Usually non-native teachers have a lot of financial problems. That is why school canteens are opened, ways and means to help teachers are discussed. To overcome the problem of fuel for teachers, firewood in the school vicinity is collected and reserved for teachers, farming land is distributed to them and they are helped with cultivation. In Cam Binh (Ha Tinh) villagers once helped teachers to build houses of their own and arranged marriages for 20 couples who were teachers. These nice gestures made teachers feel attached to their villages and hamlets.

School buildings. In developing education it is a fine tradition for villagers to join in school building. This type of co-operation between the state and people may take the following forms:

a) Investment is entirely by the state and the construction is the responsibility of the people;

b) Part of the investment is by the state and part of it is by the people;

c) People are completely responsible for the school building and it is the state's responsibility to supply teachers and textbooks; and

d) People give money and manpower and the state is responsible for building materials.

Community participation in expanding schools has made it possible for almost every village to have a basic education school of its own. This is an important condition in the success of popularizing elementary education.

Chapter Two

ACCESS TO EDUCATION

Since the 1970s, primary education has developed to the extent that it now meets, in part, the educational needs of the people. In the 1960s the primary school network was established all over the rural areas of North Viet Nam, especially in the Red River Delta and in the midlands. By the beginning of the 1970s a move was made for the universalization of primary education for the age group six to fifteen. This movement was carried out step by step by the Ministry of Education. About 90 per cent of the children entering grade I of primary education are 6 years old. This has not always been the case and that is why pupils in the last grade may have ages ranging from 11 to 14. Another reason for this is that some pupils were repeaters, and some drop-outs who, after for one or two years, might enrol again. In the regions where education is newly developed or has developed slowly, the age range of pupils at grade I may be four or five years; and this may increase to seven or eight years at the final grade of primary education. This is one of the difficulties encountered by education for that age variance leads to a mixed pedagogical atmosphere. The older pupils either have an inferiority complex or a negative influence on the development of the personalities of the younger children.

During the period from 1976-1980, primary education in the northern provinces continued to develop intensively, and the needs for primary education continued to be met as in the previous periods. In this same period, primary education in the southern part of the country received special attention by Government, and education was directed to the agricultural development of the localities. During this period, the total primary school population increased from 6.98 million to 8.1 million with an average annual growth rate of 3.8 per cent. Primary education in the mountainous areas of the north developed rapidly (nearly 8 per cent yearly) compared with some provinces in the Mekong Delta where there was a minus growth rate. All private schools in the south were replaced by Government schools. Over the past three years 1980 to 1983, the total number of primary pupils has stabilized at from 7.9 million to 8 million.

During the period 1976-1980, the country did its best to provide access to education for all the primary education age-group population. During the school year 1979-1980, in the northern provinces, 95 per cent of the 6-year olds enrolled in grade I while that of the southern provinces was 79 per cent. In 1982-1983, newly enrolled pupils in grade I made up 95 per cent of the total number of pupils in grade I. In recent school-years enrolment in grade I has been as follows:

1977 – 1978	1.88 million
1979 – 1980	1.86 million
1980 – 1981	1.88 million
1981 – 1982	1.84 million
1982 – 1983	1.85 million

Equality in universalization of primary education

There is no difference in enrolment between boys and girls. This is the great leap forward in the last three decades. In 1956 girls made up only 25 per cent of the primary school population. This figure had increased to 50 per cent by 1969-1970. This status has been maintained to the present. During the whole process of general education, from grade I to grade XII, the total numbers of girls and boys are always almost equal. Especially, at primary school the proportion of girls truly reflects the male-female ratio – 51 per cent girls in 1981-1982 and 51.8 per cent in 1982-1983.

Enrolment in primary education in rural areas is not always favourable. Rural life closely relates to agricultural production, so if, for some reason, the production yield decreases, the development of education will lag behind too.

In the mountainous region inhabitants are scattered and communications are difficult. In other regions they encounter many difficulties too, for example in the Mekong Delta region during the rainy season it is very difficult for the pupils to go to school. Universalization of primary education is facing the same difficulties in remote areas. During the five year period 1976-1980, the average growth rate of primary education pupils was 3.8 per cent, while that of the Mekong Delta Region was 2.6 per cent. Now, thanks to government and local authority investment, the growth rate for primary education in mountainous areas is much higher (6 per cent to 8 per cent) in comparison with the norm for the whole country. However, the rate of drop-outs in this region is also higher than those of other regions from at 5 per cent to 8 per cent.

During the 1970s a network of primary schools was established all over the rural areas. Each village having a population of 6,000 to 8,000 inhabitants has a basic general education school and a network of "satellite" classrooms for grade I, II and III at each hamlet with the population of 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants. That is why classrooms for children under 10 years old are normally within a radius of 1.5 km of their home. This still does not apply to children in mountainous areas and in the Mekong Delta regions. In the mountains it often takes two to three hours for children to walk to school while in the Mekong Delta region children have to cross many canals and flooded fields on the way to school. To overcome this situation the government has set up boarding schools in mountainous regions, open classes with small numbers of pupils in each class, or integrated classes for children in the Mekong Delta Region. These measures aim to provide favourable access to education for all children reaching enrolment age.

Classes average from 35 to 37 pupils. That figure rises to 40 in Hanoi and 45-46 in Ho Chi Minh City.

In reality there is now not any barrier to the enrolment to primary education. The education system is democratic and pupils do not have to pay fees. The State is trying its best to provide access to education for the 6-15 year-old population. There are still 8 to 10 per cent of children who do not go to school because parents do not fully recognize the importance of having their children go to school at the proper age; pupils withdraw from school; they suffer a changed economic status due to natural calamity; or, in some cases there is a resistance to sending their children to school by ethnic minorities.

In an effort to get 100 per cent of the age-group 6-15 in schools, the following action will be taken:

1. Make parents understand the importance of universalization of primary education;

2. Develop the administrative organization during the process of universalization of primary education;

3. Conduct a basic survey among each household to find out the exact figure of the age-group population;

4. Make and effectively use the records of universalization – each pupil should have one record;

5. Improve the teaching and learning quality and limit the rate of repeaters to the minimum;

6. Collaborate with families and all social organizations in encouraging drop-outs to return to their school and to open special classes for older pupils; and

7. Encourage collectives, enterprises or factories to take economic responsibility for children with special handicaps such as orphans and those born into large-size families.

Demand for and supply of teachers for primary education

All primary schools in the plains and midland regions of North Viet Nam are adequately staffed with qualified teachers. Many teacher training schools have been set up in the south, but in general there is a great shortage of teaching staff for primary education. In the school year 1981-1982, the teacher/class ratio was 0.88. At present there are more than 200,000 teachers of primary education (of whom 130,000 are female). There are 37,889 teachers with secondary level qualifications. Of the total number of teachers, 54,155 or 26 per cent, are untrained. Generally speaking the teaching staff for primary education in the southern part are less qualified than those of the northern provinces.

Most of the teachers who have been provided pre-service or in-service training successfully carry out the tasks they are given in the primary schools. They apply themselves very quickly to the reality and environment of the schools they are assigned to. Many primary teacher training schools in the Mekong Delta and in the mountainous regions suffer from a lack of recruitment sources and trainers to undertake accelerated training. That is why the number of teachers supplied yearly by locally run teacher training schools is still less than required.

Because each region is at a different stage of social, economic and educational development the training given by the teacher training institutions of each region is not the same. According to the requirements of each region different training systems are used within the framework of the curriculum stipulated by the Training Council for Primary Teachers of the Ministry of Education. For provinces in the Red River Delta and for some provinces and cities in the southern part where conditions for educational development are favourable, teachers for primary education come from the 10 + 2 or 12 + 2 education systems. Primary teachers in other areas come from 12 + 1, 9 + 3, 9 + 2, or 9 + 1 systems.

Primary teacher trainees are graduates of upper-secondary schools (12 years) or graduates of basic general education schools (9 years), they are trained at teacher training institutions from one to three years. Areas facing special difficulty have permission to recruit graduates of primary schools, and provide them with three years of training.

Supply and training of supervisors

After the unification of the country, the needs for expanding educational opportunities in the southern provinces in a new socio-economic context became urgent. Hundreds of supervisors and experienced teachers from northern provinces were sent to southern provinces and many of them were selected to be trainers of supervisors.

At present, two centrally run management schools (one in Hanoi and the other in Ho Chi Minh City) train 100 managers yearly for all management levels (director and deputy-director of district educational bureau, principal and principal-assistant of primary and secondary schools). In addition to the training of supervisors given in local management schools, the local secondary teacher training schools also took part in training managers so that the supervisor staff for universalization of education all over the country was supplied and reinforced. During the training process the supervisors were systematically given the theory of educational management science; management style and many other management subjects; among them, subjects on educational supervision and universalization of education supervision.

On a nation-wide scale the existing supervisor staff has enough potential and professional skill to successfully carry out the management task given to them. Supervisors have the responsibility to supervise the realization of universalization policy and to ensure the necessary facilities are made available to carry out this policy. They have to encourage and maintain the total number of primary classes; ensure the availability of material facilities necessary for the realization of objectives of universalization of education; and ensure the realization of norms set up in short-term as well as in long-term plans.

Each year, under the guidance of the district educational bureau a group of three to four schools will organize the analysis and evaluation on the realization of universalization and its quality, at the middle and at the end of the school year. Because of the different target audience and task of supervision, in reality, there are two types of supervisors; planning supervisors and professional supervisors. Planning supervisors are educational managers from local to central levels who have both pedagogical and management knowledge while professional supervisors or quality supervisors are experienced teachers or heads of each subject group taught at schools.

Goals and objectives of primary education

The objective of primary education is to educate children to love their fatherland and fellow-countrymen; study well and work well; have a good reciprocal unity and a strict discipline; keep very good hygiene; and be earnest and courageous. This will promote all round development and serve as a basis for their education at higher levels. The above objective was promulgated to guide the programme planners.

1. Cultivate and develop the national language and literature for pupils so that they can acquire a certain vocabulary, know how to write simple sentences, know main classes of words. As a result they can read books, talk and write common compositions. On this basis they are able to learn at a higher grade or join production.

2. Through nice compositions, educate the pupils to love literature, love the fatherland and fellow-countrymen, love work and science, love public wealth, love children and people of fraternal and friendly countries; hate oppression and exploitation etc. . . and to

have a collective spirit, a habit of observing disciplines and a sense of public service; to be earnest and courageous.

Vietnamese language falls under the following forms: reading; learning by heart; story telling; grammar; dictation; oral composition; and written composition.

Objectives of arithmetic at the primary level

Make pupils have a good knowledge of experimental arithmetic and geometry and train them in the habits and abilities to apply their knowledge efficiently to real life; help them develop scientific reasoning (thinking); and infuse such good-qualities as carefulness, patience, exactness and working with a concrete plan.

After finishing the primary level of education, pupils must satisfy the following requirements:

1. Know how to read and write major numbers, and handle the four operations on whole numbers and decimal numbers.

2. Have a preliminary knowledge on fractions, per cent, rule of three, proportional division.

3. Have a good command of the metric system and time-measuring system and be able to use these measuring means.

4. Have a preliminary knowledge of experimental geometry.

5. Be able to solve some average problems on whole numbers, decimal numbers and fractions. Know how to retest less complex problems and how to explain the process of solving a problem under the teacher's guidance.

6. Have good knowledge of mental arithmetic and know how to apply it to real-life practice.

Objectives of the "ABC" of science

Teach pupils preliminary knowledge of species of living creatures and guide them to observe natural phenomena so that they may understand the simple relations between those phenomena.

Provoke and develop in them love for nature, love for the Fatherland and people, love for work and science to make them preliminarily conscious of the importance of productive work in natural transformation at the service of mankind. Educate the pupils to struggle against superstitions.

Objectives of history

Make the pupils realize the nation's road of evolution, know principal events and typical heroes in the national history, and develop in them the conscious and ardent patriotism combined with the spirit of revolutionary internationalism.

Help them know the system of time, know how to read and draw a simple historical map.

Objectives of geography

Provide the pupils with some scientific notions about nature; to help them understand their Fatherland, striking features of all five continents and of some friendly and neighbouring countries.

Infuse into them some necessary skill in geography such as ways of finding directions, reading and drawing a map, memorizing important geographic names so that they may learn other subjects and apply their knowledge to real life practice.

Objectives of singing

To teach the pupils to sing in tune with great expression and to write music at the elementary level, to teach them to be able to sing common songs by themselves, thus making them love the national music and know how to enjoy international music.

Objectives of drawing

To teach the pupils to grasp the essentials of the subject; know how to remark, compare the shapes and properties of surrounding things, living creatures with their pictures described in the paintings, grasp the typical and original features of them.

The curriculum content of this subject is made up of (a) drawing and describing from life; (b) drawing for decoration; (c) drawing according to a given theme; and (d) explaining given pictures (introducing the pictures of art).

Objectives of physical culture

Make the children's bodies develop smoothly and promote their health.

On the basis of their age-groups and individual features, the pupils exercise their basic movements such as running, jumping, throwing, climbing and balancing.

Educate them to possess courage, patience, an organized mind, discipline-observing, collective spirit.

Infuse into them the everyday life habits in individual hygiene and public hygiene to keep their good health.

Table 3. Time allowance for learning courses in Level I schools

Subjects	*grade I*	*grade II*	*grade III*	*grade IV*	*grade V*
Vietnamese	14	10	10	8	8
Mathematics	3	4	5	5	5
Discovering Science	1	1	1	2	2
History	–	–	–	1	1
Morals	1	1	1	1	1
Popular technology	1	1	1	2	2
Singing	1	1	1	1	1
Gymnastics	2	2	2	2	2
Socialized activities	1	1	1	1	1
	24	21	22	23	23

Chapter Three

THE ETHNIC MINORITY AREAS

To develop education step by step and universalize primary education in the ethnic minority areas, short-term general education schools have been organized for the target clientele who are children from 11 years old upwards. They follow a simplified curriculum which uses the principal elements of the general curriculum. A network of one-teacher schools has been built.

Primary boarding schools with two classrooms, have been built. One type is under the sponsorship of the local people; and the second under the auspices of the State. The target clientele of these schools are the ethnic minority pupils in highland areas and areas where there are many economic, cultural and geographical difficulties. Teaching Vietnamese as a second language, thus helps them to learn Vietnamese letters.

Findings indicate a considerable disparity in the eduational development between lowland and highland areas and remote areas; and the quality of cultural knowledge remains low in comparison with the requirements of the curriculum.

The above defects were centred on the following causes: (a) the network of schools was not rationally located; (b) the methods of teaching Vietnamese in the ethnic minority areas were not grasped by each teacher; and (c) the policies on teachers in the mountainous areas were not well formulated.

Causes of pupils' unfinished studies

Causes:

a) pupils met with geographical and climatic difficulties;

b) the network of schools was not rationally organized (related to the geography);

c) the ties of bad practices and customs; and

d) causes created by economic and production difficulties.

Measures to be taken to boost the universalization of education at the primary level

Basic surveys must be made in each village of the exact number of children from 0 to 15 years old, of school-leavers and their cultural knowledge arranged according to their age-groups, the exact number of drop-outs and repeaters so that a plan for the universalization of primary education can be prepared. The priority measure taken to gradually universalize primary education in mountainous areas is to mobilize the aggregate strength of the whole country for education in the mountainous areas, to consolidate and rearrange the system of schools appropriately and develop a curriculum suitable to each area.

For the highlands zone priority is given to the development and construction of centralized primary schools at the district level (great efforts are being made to open a school for each district). These schools are completely financed by the state. There is a high flexibility in the forms of study. For example, a teacher can be assigned to teach both adults and children. Non-formal classes can be scheduled into the school year to provide educational opportunities for ethnic minority children.

The curriculum used by schools in villages is simplified from the primary education curriculum but still has the main subjects and basic knowledge prescribed for the primary level education.

Teaching Vietnamese

Due to the multi-national mixture in a resident area, it is impossible to use any dialect in teaching. It is extremely important to develop a curriculum and to write a textbook for teaching Vietnamese to primary-level classes in the ethnic minority areas. It is imperative to write training materials and guidelines for primary teachers at primary general education schools in the ethnic minority areas.

Training teachers and local people who are in minority groups

It is necessary to train a contingent of teaching staff on the spot in the ethnic minority areas. These teachers are aware of the local practices, customs and local dialects and are able to work at length in these areas. Numerous student-teachers and teachers in the delta areas should also be mobilized to work in the mountainous ones.

Table 4. The ratio of H'mong nationality school-goers compared with the population in some provinces

Province	*Ratio of school goers as compared with the population*
Hoang Liên Son	4.8 per cent
Cao Bang	4.8 per cent
Ha Tuyên	4.7 per cent
Nghê Tinh	7.8 per cent
Thanh Hoa	10.0 per cent

Table 5. Average primary teaching staff and enrolments of grade V for a year in some highlands villages

Names of villages	*Average number of teachers/year*	*Average number of pupils of grade V year*
La Pao Ton	10.50	4.80
Kha May	4.50	1.50
La Tao	4.00	0.35
Cong Be	2.50	0.35
Co Ma	5.00	0.30
Thoi Giay Pao	3.00	0.00

Drop-outs and population education

Most primary school drop-outs are children born into large-size families. Parents are now being encouraged and motivated to adopt birth control and maintain a family planning programme, to limit their families to one or two children. With financial support from UNFPA and technical assistance from the mobile team on population education of Unesco, ROEAP, a nationwide population education programme has been launched. This is aimed at providing awareness on the relationship between population growth and socioeconomic development including educational development for young generations who may become parents in 10 or 15 years time.

Special education

Special education has been considered as an integral part of general education for the past 40 years. The universalization of primary education has been undertaken not only in the educational process for normal children but also for handicapped children.

Nationwide, 26 schools and classes for the blind, the deaf and other handicapped have been set up in 20 provinces, cities and districts.

Most of these schools have been set up and managed by the Social and Invalid Ministry with the financial assistance of the Government and of other social organizations in Viet Nam and in the world. The number of handicapped children admitted to special schools (over 1,000 deaf children and nearly 200 blind children) is still very low according to the requirements of educational universalization.

Some positive results from this programme have been run on the considerable contribution of the local people; the support of the health and educational service in restoring some of the functions of the handicapped children; the development of the Braille system for Vietnamese blind; teaching cultural subjects through a reduced phoneme system for the deaf from grades I to V; development of a special primary school curriculum for the blind and the deaf; and the use of new methods to correct the pronunciation of linguistically handicapped children.

During the process of building and developing special education in Viet Nam, one of the factors which has been a great influence and encouragement is the assistance provided by such international organizations as Unesco and UNICEF and other philanthropic organizations in the world through investment in teaching materials, providing attachments for specialized educators, and the exchange of information and publications.

These results should be considered as the first steps on a hard road to develop special education. A uniform system is still required from local to central level with the Ministry of Education bearing fully responsibility in the organization, guidance and management, so that an overall plan for development may be worked out. A system of varied special schools and classes should be developed so that more handicapped children may be admitted yearly.

Universalization of primary education for over-age-group population

A reduced course has been developed for the age group 9 to 14 years old (children up to the age of eight may still be admitted to the five year normal system). Only mathematics, Vietnamese and general science are taught, for a duration of 100 weeks divided into three school years.

These classes are managed by primary schools and they may conduct the teaching during the day or in the evening depending on the situation. Teachers of these classes are primary school teachers who receive extra payment. The textbooks used are the same as those for normal primary education. In future, different textbooks for this target audience will be developed to improve the quality of learning. There are about 2,000,000 children learning in this type of class.

Table 6. Number of Level I school pupils and pupils of first grade in Level II divided in age-groups and grades
(Figures taken in middle of session of 1980-1981)

Age	*Place*	*grade I*	*grade II*	*grade III*	*grade IV*	*grade V*	*grade VI*
5 years	North	23,519	263				
	South	27,173	102				
	Whole country	50,992	365				
6 years	North	765,979	21,544	92			
	South	628,451	17,928	313			
	Whole country	1,394,430	39,472	405			
7 years	North	135,418	601,593	642	642		
	South	274,922	409,975	23,766	396		
	Whole country	410,340	1,011,568	24,408	1,038		
8 years	North	39,542	132,921	527,257	28,584	323	
	South	119,130	220,922	330,568	23,469	317	
	Whole country	158,672	353,843	857,825	52,053	640	

Table 6. *(Continued)*

Age	*Place*	*grade I*	*grade II*	*grade III*	*grade IV*	*grade V*	*grade VI*
9 years	North	15,568	44,450	146,151	471,320	25,791	
	South	50,066	100,764	175,558	277,326	20,210	
	Whole country	65,634	145,214	321,709	749,146	46,001	
10 years	North	8,385	17,143	43,437	164,640	441,843	31,212
	South	22,523	52,338	101,471	154,934	223,489	18,941
	Whole country	30,908	69,481	144,908	319,574	665,332	50,153
11 years	North	4,492	7,297	16,464	51,780	167,809	386,100
	South	8,596	20,111	51,504	84,194	119,008	197,919
	Whole country	13,088	27,408	67,968	135,974	286,817	584,019
12 years	North	2,653	5,132	7,649	22,311	56,454	184,312
	South	3,523	8,972	23,632	41,236	77,239	113,706
	Whole country	6,176	14,104	31,281	63,547	133,693	298,018
13 years	North	1,677	2,077	3,828	8,109	25,277	75,787
	South	1,275	3,877	7,346	18,688	34,113	55,695
	Whole country	2,952	5,954	11,174	26,797	59,390	131,482
14 years	North	822	1,822	1,764	4,293	8,871	31,200
	South	1,148	2,418	2,418	8,616	12,063	25,044
	Whole country	1,940	4,240	4,182	12,909	20,934	56,244
15 years	North	691	1,304	835	1,842	4,505	14,684
	South	137	268	852	1,669	4,396	9,015
	Whole country	828	1,572	1,687	3,511	8,901	23,699
16 and over	North	206	133	153	460	1,250	3,224
	South	20	118	210	585	1,107	2,338
	Whole country	226	251	363	1,045	2,357	5,562
Total	North	998,952	835,679	748,292	754,481	732,123	726,519
	South	1,137,264	838,793	717,638	611,113	491,942	422,658
	Whole country	2,136,216	1,693,472	1,465,910	1,365,594	1,224,065	1,149,177
Females	North	476,807	405,692	584,988	377,421	370,608	345,633
	South	468,483	551,702	312,205	269,733	215,714	180,187
	Whole country	945,290	757,394	697,193	647,154	586,322	525,820

Table 7. Changes in the development of Level I education

Years	*Places*	*Schools*	*Enrolment in grade I*	*Level-One school pupils*	*Total of Level-On school teachers*
1977-1978	The North	8,538	902,624	4,287,626	132,411
	The South	4,466	974,270	3,753,341	82,511
	Whole country	13,004	1,876,894	8,040,967	214,922
	Ha Noi	256	39,802	193,360	5,470
	Hoang Lien son	366	27,449	113,440	4,848
	Ho Chi Minh City	483	108,902	506,135	11,577
	Long An	208	31,563	145,875	3,242
1982-1983	The North	7,214	926,657	4,012,238	114,900
	The South	5,561	919,794	3,871,964	89,819
	Whole country	12,775	1,846,451	7,884,222	204,719
	Ha Noi	416	78,518	357,923	9,293
	Hoang Lien Son	496	27,902	370,120	4,076
	Ho Chi Minh City	383	96,208	481,503	11,946
	Ha Nam Ninh	516	77,540	370,120	9,776
	Long An	233	29,000	130,000	3,600

Table 8. Percentage of childeren who received Level I education in different zones or provinces.

(Figures taken in middle of Session 1979-1980)

Zones	*Level-I school pupils aged 6-11*	*Children aged 6-11*	*Percentage*	*Level-I school pupils aged 6-11*	*Children aged 6*	*Percentage*
The North	3.868.438	4.236.810	91,3%	740.298	779.702	94,9%
The South	3.539.362	4.769.217	74,2%	646.438	824.259	79,4%
Whole country	7.407.800	9.006.027	82,3%	1.386.736	1.593.961	87%
Ha Noi	337.788	363.408	93%	66.742	65.049	102%
Hai Hung	309.717	330.759	93,6%	60.158	59.925	100,4%
Nghe tinh	463.959	480.322	96,6%	92.984	89.023	104,4%
Long An	135.187	183.758	73,6%	18.490	30.732	60,2%
Ho Chi Minh City	440.125	578.228	76,1%	75.855	91.129	83,2%
Hoang Lien Son	101.480	133.193	76,2%	18.362	24.870	73,7%
Ha Nam Ninh	377.444	416.418	90,6%	74.810	77.607	96,3%

Table 9. Level I educational institutions

		Session of 1982-1983	*Session of 1980-1981*	*Session of 1977-1978*	
Total of basic general education schools	The North	7,214	6,331	8,538	
	The South	5,561	4,999	4,466	
	Whole country	12,775	11,330	13,004	
Total of Level-I schools	The North		24	33	(79-80 figure)
	The South		21	21	
	Whole country		45	54	
Schools for physically disabled children		23 schools	16 schools	10 schools	

Table 10. Teachers and their qualifications

Years	*Places*	*Qualified*			
		4 + 3	*7 + 1*	*7 + 2*	*9 + 3*
1979	The North	6,090	43,077	27,020	11,308
	The South	477	15,602	2,385	4,634
	Whole country	6,567	58,679	29,405	15,942
	Ha Noi	431	3,743	1,083	364
	Hoang Lien Son	552	1,011	1,877	68
	Ha Nam Ninh	45	4,875	1,964	1,774
	Ho Chi Minh City	134	783	247	1,051
	Long An	6	78	42	128
1981-1982	The North	3,454	25,945	27,811	10,200
	The South	264	4,387	2,741	7,229
	Whole country	3,718	30,332	30,552	17,429
	Ha Noi	156	2,686	1,428	844
	Hoang Lien Son	108	152	2,036	
	Ha Nam Ninh	54	3,332	1,641	1,194
	Ho Chi Minh City	19	558	418	544
	Long An	82	53	35	307

Table 10. *(Continued)*

10 + 1	*10 + 2*	*10 + 3*	*10 + 4*	*11 + 2*	*10 + 5*	*Unqualified*	*Total*
5,106	17,152	160	3		1	15,194	125,111
17,830	8,200	525	98		488	52,150	102,389
22,936	25,350	685	101		489	67,344	227,500
792	1,852	21	–		–	1,463	9,698
39	193	1	–		–	847	4,588
102	1,040	6	–		–	1,659	11,465
1,997	607	26	14		212	5,925	10,996
921	326	439	–		–	1,826	3,766
5,571	28,755	771	86		639	6,132	109,364
19,135	6,246	337	2	550	247	48,123	89,261
24,706	35,001	1,108	88	550	886	54,255	198,625
1,066	2,886	51	–	–	–	465	9,582
302	159						2,757
284	1,827	82	2	–	20	464	8,890
2,621	827	102	2	–	247	6,424	11,757
973	378	4	–	331	–	1,505	3,677

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

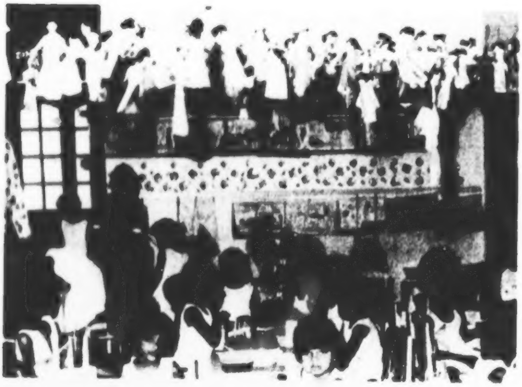
Country Studies

SRI LANKA

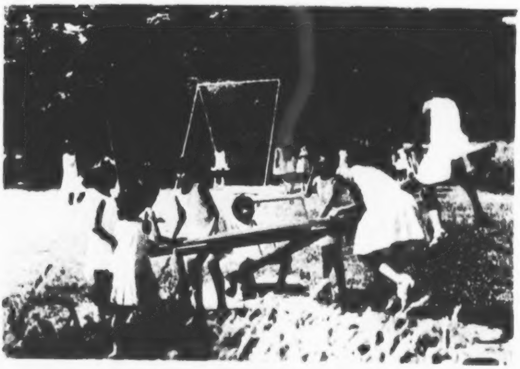
PS 016059

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE
FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
Bangkok, 1984

Children at a pre-school run by a private organization



A primary class at work



Playtime–primary children

Children enjoying the mid-day snack in an urban school

A child serving kola kanda (herbal porridge) in a rural school

A literacy class for non-school going children

Photographs supplied by courtesy of
Sri Lanka National Commission for Unesco

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Chapter One

PRESENT SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Sri Lanka is an island in the Indian Ocean situated between the northern latitudes 5° 55' and 9° 50' and the eastern longitudes 79° 42' and 81° 52'. It is separated from the Indian subcontinent by the Palk Straight. The island has a land area of 65,000 sq km. Its greatest length is 432 km and its greatest width is 224 km. The land consists of a low-lying coastal plain and an upland belt which rises to merge in the Central Highlands.

The country has preserved its national and cultural identity for over twenty-five centuries in its recorded history which stretches from the sixth century BC to the present day. The extensive ruins of ancient buildings and the vast network of man-made lakes and canals stand as a monument to a great civilization that flourished around the ancient capital cities of Anuradhapura and Polonnaruwa. Foreign invasions and internal strife combined with the outbreak of epidemics to cause the abandonment of those centres of pristine civilization. The beginning of the sixteenth century witnessed the onset of European powers and finally the British succeeded in capturing the whole island in 1815.

The political and social changes ushered in under British rule paved the way for the emergence of a political democracy. Through a gradual process of constitutional reforms the representatives of the people were trained in self-government and when independence was granted in 1948 the country was ready for a smooth transfer of power to the people.

The Sri Lankan nation is a multi-ethnic and multi-religious society. The total population according to the census of 1981 is 14.58 million. Sinhalese, the principal ethnic group, comprises 74 per cent, the Sri Lanka Tamils 12.6 per cent, the Muslims 7.1 per cent, the Indian Tamils 5.6 per cent and others 0.7 per cent. Buddhists Comprise 69.32 per cent, Hindus 15.5 per cent, Christians 7.5 per cent, Muslims 7.6 per cent and others 0.1 per cent.

After gaining independence, Sri Lanka has had to face (as in the case of other developing countries) many problems. Although the country has a low per capita income of $US 250 and is grappling with the problems of economic development, its achievements in the field of social development are outstanding. It has a literacy rate of 86 per cent, infant mortality rate of 38 per 1000, death rate of 6 per 1000 and life expectancy of 67 years. The population growth rate has come down to 1.5 per cent. These are significant achievements for a developing country.

Brief history of the development of the educational system. The beginnings of the educational system of Sri Lanka can be traced back to the introduction of Buddhism into the country in the third century BC. From that time until the advent of the Western powers in the sixteenth century the centres of learning were the Buddhist temples where the monks learned the Buddhist doctrine and laymen were taught letters and the reading of Buddhist scriptures. Some of these monastic establishments developed into great centres of oriental learning. In addition to the Buddhist doctrine, they also fostered secular learning which embraced such disciplines as poetics, medicine and engineering. The engineering feats exemplified by the vast lakes and the network of irrigation canals and the ruins of ancient buildings are proof of an advanced technology. These monastic institutions ably fulfilled their obligations as centres of learning under the stimulus of royal patronage. The advent of European powers caused a gradual erosion of the traditional education base of the country.

Many of the characteristics of the school system as it exists today are the result of the educational activities of the succeeding European colonial powers. The Portuguese who ruled the maritime provinces from 1505 to 1658 established schools mainly for the purpose of converting the local population to Roman Catholicism. The Dutch who followed the Portuguese (1658 to 1796) reorganized and extended the school system with the same objective of proselytization. The British who succeeded the Dutch in 1796 continued with the same policy in the early phase of their rule.

After they gained control of the whole island and unified the administration, there arose the need to train local personnel for the lower rungs of the administrative hierarchy. The government therefore encouraged the establishment of schools taught in the English language. The arrival of Anglican and other missionaries also gave an impetus to the establishment of schools. In 1869 the Department of Public Instruction was established for the purpose of managing government schools and the expansion of educational provision. The missionary societies continued to establish English schools and there emerged a dual system: English language schools with qualified teachers and superior facilities which charged fees and catered to the upper classes, and vernacular schools which imparted free education to the children of the poor classes. Although some headway was made in the establishment of schools, "three-fourths of the children of school-going-age were not attending schools."[1]

The Town Schools Ordinance of 1906 and the Rural Schools Ordinance of 1907 intended to provide compulsory education for children between the ages of six and twelve years with some exceptions. These Ordinances entrusted the provision of vernacular education to local bodies. It is significant that these two Ordinances were the first attempts to introduce compulsory education, though the progress achieved was "poor, tardy and unsatisfactory."[2]

The introduction of universal adult franchise and the grant of internal self-government under the constitutional reforms of 1931 brought the issue of education to the forefront. An elected representative of the people became the chairman of the Executive Committee on Education in the State Council and assumed responsibility for education as the minister-in-charge of the subject.

The educational policies implemented during the 1930s and 1940s constitute a high-water mark in the process of democratization of education in Sri Lanka. The Education Ordinance of 1939, which still constitutes the greater part of the educational law, attempted to introduce an element of control over the assisted schools run by the denominational bodies. The establishment of central schools and junior schools provided facilities for rural children to obtain an education equivalent to that imparted by the elite schools in the urban areas. A scheme of scholarships enabled children from poor families to gain access to better education. The decision to accept the principle of "Free education from the kindergarten to the university" as national policy broke down the exclusiveness of assisted English schools and opened the doors of secondary and tertiary education to talented pupils from poor homes. Finally the adoption of mother tongue as the medium of instruction set in motion a trend of events which in the succeeding decades broke down the barriers of language for social advancement.

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[1] *Education in Ceylon – A Centenary Volume Part II.* Colombo, Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs, 1969. p. 460.

[2] *Education in Ceylon – A Centenary Volume Part II.* Colombo, Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs, 1969. p. 504.

After gaining independence in 1948 successive governments continued with the policy of democratization of educational provision. The progressive increase in enrolment of pupils in schools and the rise in literacy indicate the achievements in this field. The following table on the percentage of literates shows the significant progress made in this sphere:

Year	*Males*	*Females*	*Average*
1901	42.0	8.0	26.4
1911	47.2	12.5	31.0
1921	56.4	21.2	39.9
1946	70.1	43.8	57.8
1953	80.7	69.0	75.5
1963	85.6	67.3	76.9
1971	85.6	70.9	78.5
1981	90.5	82.4	86.5

Source Department of Census and Statistics.

Until 1960 the state schools and state-aided private schools continued to exist side-by-side resulting in a duality of control in the educational system. This dualism operated to the disadvantage of the poor: "The combined effect of these dualities was that educational provision was unplanned, unevenly distributed, wasteful of human and financial resources and that above all access to a quality education was by and large denied to the mass of the rural population and the urban poor."[3] With the take-over of assisted schools for state management in 1960 this duality of control in education was also done away with.

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[3] Jayasuriya, J. E. *Education in the Third World: Some Reflections.* Indian Institute of Education, 1981. p 82.

In the 1960s government expenditure on education reached a very high level. It averaged 4.5 per cent of the GNP and 16 to 20 per cent of the annual government budget. Much of this expenditure was incurred on the payment of salaries to the teaching staff and provision of building facilities. But a small percentage was used for quality improvement, e.g., preparation of curriculum material and in-service training of teachers. The extension of science teaching to a large number of rural schools during this period could be described as an attempt to meet the social demand for equality of educational opportunities.

Quantitative expansion of education without a parallel thrust to align the system with the socio-economic needs of the country resulted in a relatively high incidence of educated unemployment. The system's output mainly prepared students for white collar jobs and administrative careers, far exceeding the demand of the economy. The educational reforms introduced in the early part of the 1970s gave "first priority to the task of formulating a new structure that will be well fitted to the needs of the country over the years ahead."[4] These reforms introduced an 'integrated' curriculum laying emphasis on pupil participation and activity-based learning in the primary grades and a common curriculum including science, mathematics and pre-vocational subjects in the junior secondary grades.

Certain modifications in the system, particularly with regard to the grade structure of the school system, was introduced in 1978. The supply of free school books is another progressive step that helped to retain a larger number of pupils in the system. The importance of non-formal education as a means of providing vocational and technical training opportunities for school drop-outs as well as continuing education and personal fulfilment courses for adults was recognized and several projects were inaugurated to benefit the target population.

The legal provisions. The Constitution of Sri Lanka in its chapter on Directive Principles of State Policy and Fundamental Duties, states that the state is pledged to establish in Sri Lanka a democratic socialist society of which one of the objectives is "The complete eradication of illiteracy and the assurance to all persons of the right to universal and equal access to education at all levels."[5] Thus the principle of universal and compulsory education is enshrined in the Constitution.

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[4] *Medium Term Plan for the Development of Education 1973-1977.* Colombo, Ministry of Education, 1973. p. 2.

The principle legislative enactment relating to education in the country is the Education Ordinance No. 31 of 1939. This Ordinance empowers the Director of Education (now the Director General of Education) to execute and enforce the provisions of the Ordinance subject to the general direction and control of the Minister of Education. The Minister is also given the authority to make regulations for the purpose of giving effect to the principles and provisions of the Ordinance. Regulations known as the Code have been framed for regulating the management of both primary and secondary schools.

The Town Schools Ordinance of 1906 and the Rural Schools Ordinance of 1907 were the first pieces of legislation which provided the legal basis for compulsory education in Sri Lanka. The Town Schools Ordinance provided for local authorities to establish schools within their limits for the education of children in vernacular languages and empowered them to pass by-laws for the working of the Ordinance. The Rural Schools Ordinance created district school committees with government officials and school managers nominated by the authorities. These bodies were required to conduct surveys of schools and prepare schemes for the establishment of vernacular schools. The school districts were to be subdivided into school circles comprising a single village or a group of villages so that they could be served by a single school, the demarcation being effected in such a manner that children could be compelled to attend a school if they lived within a radius of three miles. The extensions to existing schools and new schools had to be approved by the Director of Public Instruction: "The government while accepting the principle of compulsory education and providing legislation for the purpose, apparently favoured a gradual approach."[6]

The Education Ordinance of 1920 consolidated the existing legislation and established the Office of the Director of Education.

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[5] *The Constitution of the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka* (Colombo, Department of Government Printing, 1978).

[6] *Education in Ceylon – A Centenary Volume Part II.* Colombo, Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs, 1969.

The district committees under the old Ordinances were replaced by education district committees, which were entrusted with the function of enforcing the law relating to compulsory education and provision of school facilities. These committees were empowered to make by-laws requiring parents of children aged 6 to 14 years (6 to 10 years in the case of Muslim and Tamil girls) residing within a particular area to attend elementary schools.

The Ordinance of 1939 empowered the Executive Committee of Education (later the Minister of Education) to make the following regulations:

a) Appoint attendance officers to ensure compulsory attendance of children in schools;

b) Empower such officers to collect information regarding children not attending school;

c) Authorize attendance officers to visit the homes of children and verify information regarding children not attending school;

d) Specify areas where sufficient educational facilities have been provided for the enforcement of regulations;

e) Place responsibility with the parents of children aged 6 to 14 years (upper age limit was increased to 16 years in 1947) to send them to a school if available within a distance of two miles;

f) Determine the days and hours of school sessions; and

g) Impose penalties on parents for contravention of these regulations.

However, along with the above provisions, the Ordinance provided for so many exceptions and provisions that the Special Committee on Education 1943 commented, "Unfortunately the exceptions now granted defeat the very object of the law."[7] According to the Ordinance, no parent could be prosecuted if a school was not available within two miles of the child's residence.

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[7] *Sessional Paper No. VII of 1946*. Colombo, Government Press, 1946. p. 7.

In actual fact, regulations on compulsory education under the 1939 Ordinance were never framed. However the by-laws made under the Ordinances of 1907 and 1920 were not repealed by the new Ordinance and attendance officers appointed under these by-laws continued to carry on their functions of checking on enrolment and attendence of pupils. Parents who did not comply with the by-laws were prosecuted. There was also provision for harsh punishments such as whipping and sending to a certified school for children who were habitual offenders. Gradually the Department of Education fell in line with the thinking that school attendance should be encouraged as a habit by persuasion and not enforced by compulsion. Consequently the appointment of attendence officers was discontinued.

It has been stated that "the legislation for compulsory education in Ceylon in spite of certain inherent weaknesses has contributed in a large measure to the promotion of elementary education."[8] The steep rise in the participation rate and the literacy rate during this period supports this view.

The school structure. Prior to 1972 the school system had the following structure:

a) Primary level (grades I-V);

b) Middle level (grades VI-VIII);

c) Secondary – first cycle (grades IX-X); and

d) Secondary – second cycle (grades XI-XII).

At the end of grade VIII, pupils were grouped into three fields: arts, science or commerce. At the end of grade X they faced their first public examination: the General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level (GCE 'O' Level) Examination. Entry into the senior secondary cycle depended on their performance at this examination. The senior secondary cycle prepared them for the next public examination: the General Certificate of Education Advanced Level (GCE 'A' Level) Examination. This was mainly a matriculation examination for the selection of students for admission to the university.

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[8] *Education in Ceylon – A Centenary Volume Part II.* Colombo, Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs, 1969. p. 511.

The educational reforms of 1972 raised the age of admission to school from five years to six years and reduced the span of the primary and junior secondary cycles by one year. The reforms changed the school structure as follows:

a) Primary level (grades I-V);

b) Junior secondary level (grades VI-IX); and

c) Senior secondary level (grades X-XI).

The junior secondary level did away with the streaming of students and offered a common curriculum which included science, mathematics and pre-vocational studies. The National Certificate of General Education (NCGE) Examination which was held at the end of grade IX functioned as a selective mechanism for admitting pupils to the senior secondary cycle.

In 1978 these reforms were revoked to restore many of the features that were in existence prior to 1972. The age of admission was lowered to five years and the span of formal education was increased from 11 to 13 years. A year was added making a total of 13 grades (6 + 3 + 2 + 2). The system existing today has the structure indicated below:

a) Primary level (grades K-V (6 years));

b) Junior secondary level (grades VI-X (5 years)); and

c) Senior secondary level (grades XI-XII (2 years)).

Institutions providing general education can be classified as primary, junior secondary and senior secondary schools. The majority of the junior secondary and senior secondary schools have primary grades. The grade spans of the three types of schools are as follows:

a) Primary school (grades K-V);

b) Junior school (grades K-X); and

c) Senior secondary school (grades K-XII or VI-XII).

This last category is again subdivided as follows:

a) 1A/1B Schools – Senior secondary schools with GCE 'A' Level science classes.

b) 1C Schools – Senior secondary schools with GCE 'A' Level arts/commerce classes.

The number of schools in the above categories as well as schools with primary grades are indicated below:

Status of school	*Description*	*No. of schools*	
		Total	*Percentage*
1A/1B	Senior secondary schools with GCE 'A' Level science classes	470	4.9
1C	Senior secondary schools with GCE 'A' Level arts/commerce	1383	14.5
2	Junior secondary schools	3754	39.5
3	Primary schools	3914	41.1
TOTAL		9521	100.0

Schools according to grades held – 1981

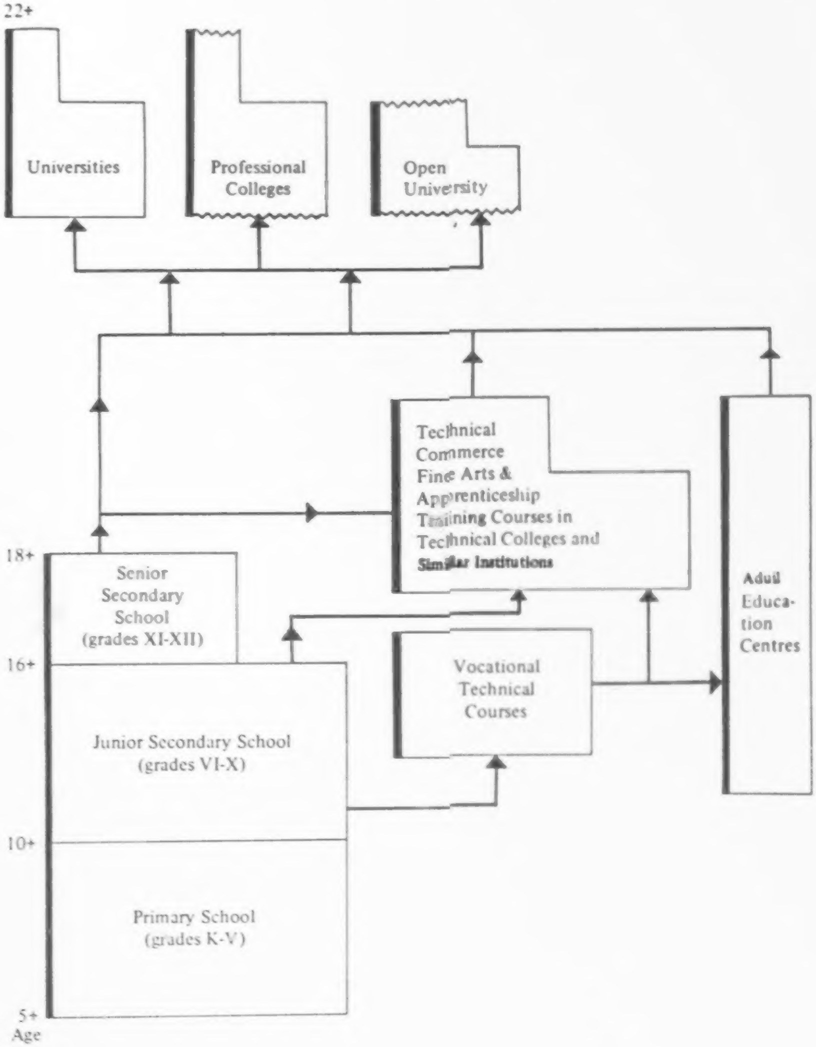
Grade span	*Grade*	*No. of schools*	
		Total	*Percentage*
Primary	K–V	3914	41.1
Primary and junior secondary	K–X	3754	39.4
Primary, junior secondary and senior secondary	K–XII	1471	15.4
Junior secondary and senior secondary	VI–XII	382	4.1
TOTAL		9521	100.0

Source: School Census – 1981.

Of the 9521 schools, 9139 or 96 per cent have primary grades. This is an indication of the spread of primary education facilities throughout the country. It also illustrates the difficulty of separately computing inputs such as staff, buildings, equipment and furniture needed for the primary cycle of education.

The size of schools varies from less than 50 pupils to over 4000 pupils. The small schools are situated mostly in the remote rural areas and the plantation districts while the large schools are situated in densely populated cities. The following table shows the distribution of schools by size:

EXISTING SYSTEM OF EDUCATION/TRAINING


22+
Universities
Professional Colleges
Open University
Technical
Commerce
Fine Arts &
Apprenticeship
Training Courses in
Technical Colleges and
Similar Institutions
Adult Education Centres
18+
Senior Secondary School (grades XI-XII)
16+
Vocational Technical Courses
Junior Secondary School (grades VI-X)
10+
Primary School (grades K-V)
5+
Age

Size of school		*No. of schools*	*Percentage*
1–50	Students	653	6.9
51–100	,,	1596	16.7
101–200	,,	2066	21.7
201–500	,,	3112	32.7
501–1000	,,	1519	16.0
1001–1500	,,	384	4.1
1501–2000	,,	110	1.1
over 2000	,,	81	0.8
TOTAL		9521	100.00

Source: School Census – 1981

A large number of schools in Sri Lanka are co-educational. But there are a few single-sex schools in the cities. Most of these are assisted schools established during the colonial era. Of the 9521 schools, 149 are boys' schools and 210 are girls' schools while 9162 or 96 per cent are mixed.

According to enrolment figures in the primary cycle male enrolment is slightly higher than female enrolment. However in the junior secondary and senior secondary cycles the females outnumber the males.

Enrolment in primary, junior secondary and senior secondary cycles by sex

Cycle	*Total enrolment*			*Percentage*	
	Male	*Female*	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*
Primary	1,092,245	1,013,413	2,105,658	51.8	48.2
Junior secondary	522,906	539,412	1,062,318	49.2	50.8
Senior secondary	84,869	116,849	201,718	42.1	57.9
TOTAL	1,700,020	1,669,674	3,369,694	50.5	49.5

Source: School Census – 1981

The present school system in Sri Lanka can be described as mainly a state-controlled system. The system that existed during the colonial period was characterized by a dual management: the government system of schools and the assisted school system run by various religious denominations with government assistance. Following the take-over of the assisted schools in 1960 only 62 schools remain outside the state system. Of these 62 schools 25 schools receive financial assistance from the government for the payment of teachers' salaries. All schools have to follow the national policy on education as enunciated by the government.

There are other educational institutions called Pirivenas, which are run by the Buddhist clergy mainly for the purpose of imparting the training necessary for those aspiring to enter the Buddhist priesthood and the lay students over 14 years of age who wish to be trained in a religious atmosphere.

Some of these institutions are well known centres of oriental learning in the tradition of the ancient Buddhist institutes of learning. About 330 institutions are financially supported by the government.

The Education Ministry does not directly conduct pre-education centres. As. the lower limit of school age is fixed at five years it is believed that the activity-based, environmentally-biased instruction given in the kindergarten is adequate preparation for formal education. However a large number of voluntary organizations and private individuals are engaged in running pre-school centres. In the rural areas the Sarvodaya Movement, the rural development societies and village development councils (Gramodaya Mandalayas) have organized such centres. In the plantation sector, such centres are organized by the state plantation co-operatives. The Ministry of Local Government and the Ministry of Social Services assist voluntary organizations to set up pre-school institutions. In the urban areas there are many efficiently-managed private nursery schools. Although the Education Ministry does not run pre-school institutions, the Ministry is exploring the possibility of providing facilities such as training of pre-school teachers and regulating management of preschools run by various organizations and individuals.

The adult education programmes were reorganized in the 1970s to meet the needs of out-of-school youths and adults in the country. A technical and vocational training programme for school drop-outs was launched to train them in skills which would help them to enter the job market or establish self-employment. In 1978 a general adult education programme was started to provide life-enrichment courses for the adult population. Adult education officers were appointed on an electorate basis to organize this programme. In 1981 the Ministry organized literacy centres on a pilot basis to provide an alternative structure to the formal school with a view to realizing UPE. The non-formal education programmes have close linkages with the formal system and often use the resources of the formal system. Programmes such as literacy centres facilitate the re-entry of their clients into the formal system.

The universities and tertiary educational institutes are administered by the Ministry of Higher Education.

Educational administration

The central-level organization. The executive power under the constitution of Sri Lanka is vested in the President of the Republic and the ministers who are charged with the direction and control of ministries and departments under them. The ministers derive their executive power from the President. Thus the executive head of the Education Ministry is the Minister of Education who is assisted by a Deputy Minister and a Project Minister. The Secretary, subject to the general direction and control of the Minister of Education, is responsible for the effective implementation of educational policy and has supervision over all activities and functions of the Ministry as well as the departments and agencies under its control. The Secretary is assisted by other officials in implementing the educational policy of the government.

At the Ministry there are four additional secretaries who are responsible for providing staff services in the fields coming within their purview. For the purpose of implementation of policy the island is divided into four ranges and each Secretary, in addition to his staff functions, is vested with the responsibility of supervising one of the ranges. They are assisted by deputy directors-general of education, directors of education, the chief accountant, the director of school works, the senior assistant secretary, assistant secretaries, chief education officers and accountants. Two other institutions, the Department of Examinations and the Department of Educational Publications, are headed by two commissioners.

The functions of the Ministry of Education Services include the provision of buildings, furniture, equipment, schoolbooks and midday meals to school children. The Secretary of Education Services is responsible for implementing the orders of the Project Ministry under the control and direction of the Project Minister.

An independent body known as the Education Service Committee under the direction of the Public Service Commission has been appointed by the President to discharge such functions as recruitment, promotion, deployment and disciplinary control of teachers and education service officers.

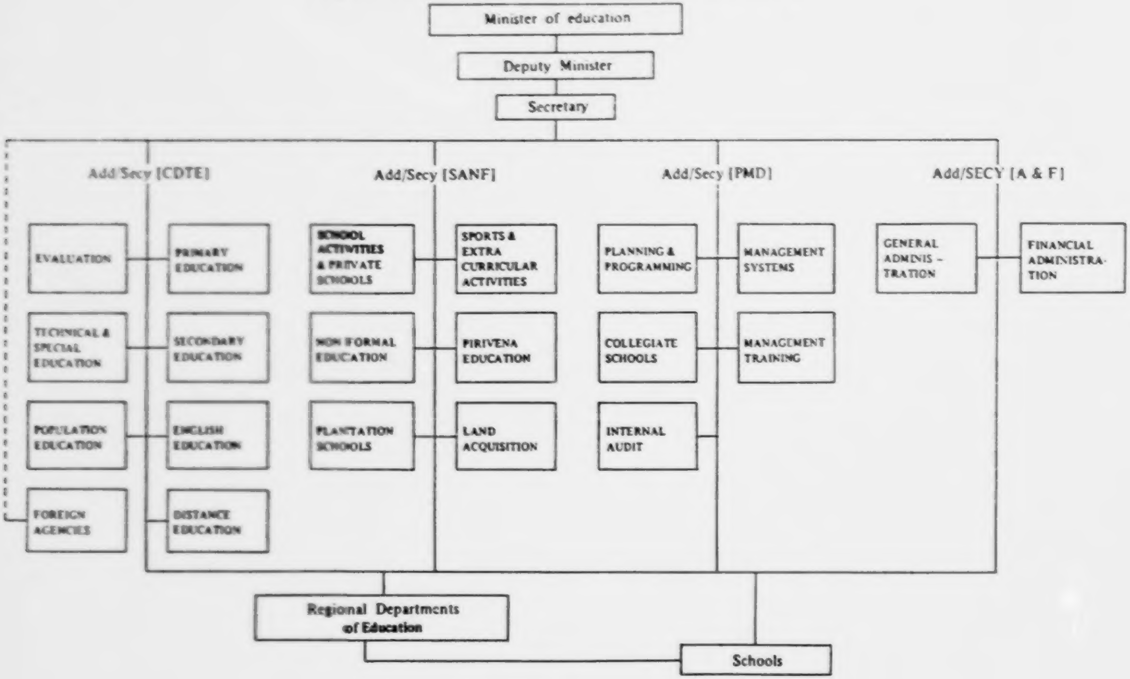
The district-level organization. The actual implementation of educational programmes is carried out by the regional departments of education. There are 24 such departments which co-exist with the administrative districts of the country. A regional department is managed by a regional director of education (RDE). The director is assisted by chief education officers, education officers, an accountant, a school works engineer and supervisors designated as circuit education officers. In large administrative districts where the number of schools and the school population are too large to be managed by one office, sub-offices have been established under chief education officers.

The work of the regional education departments is organized into five divisions, namely, educational administration, educational development, general administration, finance and school works (buildings). The RDE himself heads the Education Development Division, while being responsible for the efficient management of the whole regional department.

In regions where there are sub-offices, the RDE is responsible for the efficient management of the entire region inclusive of the areas under the sub-office. The chief education officer in charge of the sub-office and his staff in the sub-office form the RDE's supportive staff. The activities of the sub-office are confined to the three areas of general administration, finance and school works.

Each district is divided into several circuits which are more or less co-existent with the electorates. On the average each circuit

Organizational chart of the ministry of education


Minister of education
Deputy Minister
Secretary
Add/Secy [CDTE]
Add/Secy [SANF]
Add/Secy [PMD]
Add/SECY [A & F]
EVALUATION
PRIMARY EDUCATION
TECHNICAL & SPECIAL EDUCATION
SECONDARY EDUCATION
POPULATION EDUCATION
ENGLISH EDUCATION
FOREIGN AGENCIES
DISTANCE EDUCATION
SCHOOL ACTIVITIES & PRIVATE SCHOOLS
SPORTS & EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES
NON FORMAL EDUCATION
PIRIVENA EDUCATION
PLANTATION SCHOOLS
LAND ACQUISITION
PLANNING & PROGRAMMING
MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS
COLLEGIATE SCHOOLS
MANAGEMENT TRAINING
INTERNAL AUDIT
GENERAL ADMINIS - TRATION
FINANCIAL ADMINISTRA- TION
Regional Departments of Education
Schools

consists of 30 to 40 schools. A circuit is in the charge of a circuit education officer whose main function is the supervision of schools in the circuit. He also functions as the link between the schools and the Regional Department of Education. In addition there are also specialist circuit education officers who are in charge of supervision of various subject areas such as science, agriculture, commerce, home science, physical education, art, music and dancing.

Planning of education. In Sri Lanka the general policy of the government is formulated on the basis of the manifesto of the political party in power, which has been endorsed by the majority of the people at the hustings. The executive policy which represents the will of the government is derived from this general policy, taking into consideration the realities and constraints operating at the time and the need to adopt a pragmatic approach. The executive policy in relation to education provides the objectives or the decisional premises for educational planning. Medium-term investment plans and the annual implementation programmes of the Ministry are worked out in the context of national policy and priorities. The educational planners have to create action paths for the purpose of making the educational system more efficient in achieving set targets within the framework of established objectives.

The Planning and Programming Branch of the Ministry is responsible for the planning and programming of education. The director is guided by the policy directives and resource allocations indicated in the Government Investment Plan. The annual implementation programmes are prepared on the basis of the programme activities of the different branches at the Ministry and the regional departments of education.

Educational planning at the regional level is of recent origin. According to a scheme prepared by the ministry the regional director of education is required to prepare a three-year rolling plan for the educational development of the region. When approved by the Minister of Education this plan will provide the basis for the preparation of the annual implementation plan.

As described in Chapter Four, each district will be divided into a number of school zones and education offices will be established to plan the development of these zones. The zonal plans will be synthesized into the three-year rolling district plan.

The head of the school is entrusted with the responsibility of drawing up the annual plan for his school. He is assisted in this task by the deputy principal, grade co-ordinators and subject co-ordinators. The effectiveness of planning at the different levels will depend on the nature and viability of the linkages between school-level and zonal planning on the one hand and between zonal and district-level planning on the other.

Administrative organization for primary education. At the central level, the Primary Education Branch of the Ministry is responsible for the overall planning and development of primary education under the guidance of the additional secretary. The Primary Education Curriculum Committee comprising the additional secretary, the director/primary education, the director/secondary education, chairpersons of sub-committees on different subject areas, the principal of a teachers' college and the principal of a primary school or a school with primary classes is responsible for designing curriculum content and methods of teaching. Sub-committees have been set up for language, mathematics, environmental studies and science, social studies, health and physical education, and aesthetics and creative activities. These sub-committees consist of subject specialists chosen from among officers in the educational service, teachers' college lecturers and primary school teachers. In addition to the preparation of curricular materials, the Primary Education Branch is responsible for the in-service training of primary teachers, supervision and evaluation, and action research in primary education.

The Curriculum Development Centre provides staff services to regional departments of education by supplying course guides and curriculum materials prepared at the Centre and organizing in-service training for supervising officers and master-teachers in the region. The regional director of education in turn is expected to see that all curriculum materials are distributed among the schools in his region and in-service training programmes are conducted for the teachers and heads of schools.

The function of educational supervision is carried out by the head of the school and his subject co-ordinators and by the regional director and his staff. The officers of the Curriculum Development Centre visit schools for the purpose of supervising teaching and obtaining information needed for evaluating curricular materials and providing guidance to regional staff engaged in supervision. A system for supervision of primary schools is being prepared at the Centre by a team of educators comprising university lecturers, teachers' college lecturers, principals of schools and experienced primary teachers. The system will be used by the supervising officers to monitor more efficiently the progress of primary education.

Applications for the establishment of new schools are processed by the Regional School Structure Committee and sent to the Ministry School Structure Committee through the additional secretary-in-charge of the particular range. Decisions on such matters are taken after considering the number of non school-going children in the area, whether a primary school is available within a radius of two miles, the population density of the area and the geographical and topographical features of the area. Requests for the establishment of new schools come from regional directors and voluntary groups such as rural development societies and village development councils. Sometimes voluntary organizations donate land for the school and also offer to construct buildings. It is envisaged that in the future, the question of establishment of new schools will be adequately considered during the preparation of the zonal plan. Under the present integrated primary education programme the co-operation of the community is extended in several ways. The parents can become active contributors to classroom activities. They can share their talents, knowledge and skills with children who seek their assistance. The children go into the community seeking information about their environment and the community in turn is invited to the classroom. Some of the mothers who accompany their children to the school actively help the teacher to organize materials necessary for learning activities.

Through school development societies parents have contributed to improvement of infrastructural facilities. They have converted open school buildings into attractive primary classrooms. Most of the materials necessary for practical work have also been provided by the parents.

Teacher training and curriculum development

Teacher training. Until recently the minimum academic qualification required of persons aspiring to enter the teaching service was the GCE 'O' level. The required qualification is now upgraded to include passing grades in three subjects at the GCE 'A' level. The new recruits to the service thus have a minimum of 12 years of formal schooling. As a sufficient number of persons with the requisite qualifications are available in the labour market, the supply is more than adequate to meet the demand.

After recruitment, the new teachers undergo a short course of training varying from two to three weeks in duration. The purpose of this training is to orientate the new recruits to their vocation. After a few years they are selected to undergo a course of training at a teachers' college.

Primary and secondary grades share resources in most schools. According to the school census the number of teachers working in primary grades is 61,192. There is a teacher-pupil ratio of 1:36. The general teacher-pupil ratio for the country is 1:23. The Ministry has stated that the class size in the primary grades should be 35 to 40, though this would depend on the total enrolment. In a large number of small schools one teacher has to handle a number of classes. The statistics relating to the number of female teachers in the primary grades are not available. Nearly 60 per cent of the teachers in both primary and secondary education are female. The present policy is to deploy female-trained teachers to teach in the lower primary grades. The ratio of female teachers to male teachers is higher in the primary cycle than in the secondary cycle. Data available on trainees in teachers' colleges indicates that the percentage of female teachers in primary education is 70 per cent.

There are difficulties in sending teachers to schools in remote areas. The Ministry gives preference to such schools in the matter of providing teachers' living quarters and other amenities. The Small Schools' Programme implemented with UNICEF assistance was an attempt to meet the basic needs of this category of schools.

Until recently the regulations of the Ministry of Education did not permit university graduates to teach in the primary grades. Currently this rule has been relaxed and 236 university graduates have now been trained to teach primary education with an integrated curriculum. A large proportion of university graduates recruited to the teaching service in the future will be deployed in primary education. This policy will increase the number of teachers having the necessary experience and expertise to participate in research directed towards the improvement of primary education.

At present there are 16 training colleges where courses for primary school teachers are conducted. The annual total of graduates of these institutions is approximately 1,000. Figures indicate that 13,000 primary teachers are currently untrained. The policy of the Ministry is to introduce pre-service training and to clear this backlog within the shortest possible time. Accordingly the Ministry has formulated a scheme to provide a two- or three-year non-residential course for the training of teachers for elementary education. In addition to non-residential education methods, contact sessions will be held at district centres during week-ends and school vacations. The tutorial staff for these centres will be drawn mainly from among the lecturers of teachers' colleges.

The course provided at a teachers' college is of a two-year duration. The curriculum comprises the following components:

a) Professional course:
  i) Principles of education;
  ii) Educational psychology; and

b) General education course:
  i) Mother tongue, religion and health and physical education (this component is compulsory);
  ii) English, aesthetic education, agriculture, second language, home science, mathematics, science and social science (these are selectives).

A trainee should successfully complete a course of practical teaching at a school under the guidance of a supervisor.

The functions of teacher education and curriculum development are entrusted to the additional secretary so that there is closer co-operation and co-ordination between curriculum designers and the staff of teachers' colleges. The staff of teachers' colleges are represented on the Primary Education Curriculum Committee.

A programme of in-service training for primary school teachers was implemented when the integrated curriculum was introduced in 1973. This programme involves the training of nearly 10,000 teachers per year as well as the orientation of school directors, circuit education officers and the staff of the regional education departments. The national training team at the Curriculum Development Centre train selected teachers and circuit education officers. These teachers and officers train other teachers at the circuit level by conducting five-day seminars. The programme provides the teachers with opportunities to acquire and develop new concepts and exchange experiences for their mutual benefit.

A newsletter containing new ideas and experiences in primary education is published by the Curriculum Development Centre. This document is published three times a year and is sent to all the primary schools in the country. Radio programmes and newspapers are also used to disseminate new concepts on primary education.

Curriculum development. Prior to 1972 the primary schools in Sri Lanka followed a traditional pattern using formal methods of teaching. The reforms introduced in that year changed both the content and methodology of the primary teaching programme. The reformers envisioned flexibility and freedom to enable the pupil to discover his/her own learning environment and to enable the teacher to creatively use the resources available to suit the needs of the learners. The objectives of the integrated primary education programme may be described as follows.

a) Learning to understand relationships and their implications rather than learning isolated facts;

b) Critical objective thinking in place of passive acceptance of others' opinions;

c) Flexibility and adaptability to meet the challenge of rapid change encountered in modern life;

d) Creativity in thought and action;

e) Self-reliance leading to self-respect;

f) Resourcefulness (to do the best possible job with the resources available);

g) Responsibility for social welfare and civic and social duties;

h) Respect for the inner worth of the individual;

i) Commitment to work, striving for excellence and quality;

j) Patriotism in the context of respect for other nations;

k) Fairness and impartiality in dealing with other people;

l) Ability to accept criticism; and

m) Respect for others' opinions.

The open and flexible approach in the school necessarily implies that the role of the teacher should change from the dominant authoritative figure to a 'facilitator of learning'. The teacher should help the children to undertake meaningful activities either singly or in groups. The artificial demarcation of subject barriers in the curriculum should give way to integrated study through a problem solving approach. Performance should be tested continuously throughout the year taking remedial action whenever necessary.

The subjects that form the components of the curriculum are first language; mathematics; environmental studies and science; creative and constructional activities; aesthetic activities and physical education; religion; and second language (beginning at grade III).

The teacher is expected to integrate the instructional material around eleven themes. These same themes are also pursued in the upper grades of the primary cycle. The themes are as follows:

(a) 'Our houses and the people who live in them'; (b) 'Things we eat and drink'; (c) 'Things we wear'; (d) 'Things which help us work'; (e) 'How we live in a mixed community'; (f) 'The world around us'; (g) 'Our school and the neighbourhood'; (h) 'People who help us'; (i) 'How we travel and communicate'; (j) 'Our earth and the sky above'; and (k) 'Things we see and hear'.

Though specific activities and time may be allocated for language and mathematical skills the integrated approach provides for meaningful applications and practice. Flexible time scheduling which frees the teacher from the usual 30- to 40-minute time blocks encourages independent exploration and learning by pupils.

Some positive results have been achieved, especially in the lower grades of the primary cycle. However, the results fall short of expectations. Although the teachers are expected to integrate the instructional materials, the average teacher does not possess the required capacity to undertake such an exercise. Furthermore, when the age of admission to school was lowered to five and the kindergarten was introduced, grade I was 'extrapolated backwards' to provide experiences for socialization and exploration in the kindergarten. The expediency of such an approach is, however, questionable.[9]

Financing education

After the introduction of free education in 1945 and the takeover of assisted schools by the state system in 1961, the cost of education has been borne almost entirely by the state. Only 25 assisted schools and a few fee-levying schools opted out of the state system. The non-fee-levying private schools are now provided with a grant to meet the cost of salary payments to their teachers.

The Government's financial commitment to general education amounts to nearly 6 per cent of the total budget. Current expenditure on general education stands at 93.4 per cent of the total allocation provided for this segment of education. Salary payments to employees constitute nearly 88 per cent of the recurrent expenditure and teachers' salaries account for 96.5 per cent of the salary payments.

The school system consists of primary (grade 0-V), junior secondary (grade 0-X) and senior secondary schools (grade 0-XII or VI-XII). Both junior secondary and the large majority of the senior secondary schools have primary grades and the infrastructural facilities of these schools are available to the different cycles of general education. In some schools, especially the smaller ones, the same person teaches both primary and secondary grades. Allocations are provided for recurrent and capital expenditure but a breakdown of expenditure according to the level of education is not available.

Although a direct determination of expenditure on primary education is not possible, one has recourse to an indirect mode of calculation which would yield results that are approximate to reality.

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[9] Peiris, Kamala. *Educational Change at Primary Level in Sri Lanka.* Colombo, the author, 1981.

Expenditure on general education, (1975-1982)

	*Current prices (SRs)**	*1970 prices (SRs)*	*Percentage increase/decrease*
1975	659,099,563	382,277,740	
1976	865,795,126	476,187,310	+ 25
1977	894,465,329	411,454,040	– 14
1978	1,002,778,506	431,194,750	+ 5
1979	1,185,838,492	438,760,200	+ 2
1980	1,521,016,493	471,515,080	+ 7
1981	1,988,399,440	516,983,840	+ 10
1982	2,263,633,000	543,271,920	+ 5

Educational expenditure per pupil, 1975-1982

	1970 prices (SRs)	*Percentage increase/decrease*
1975	157.21	
1976	193.45	+ 23
1977	167.11	– 14
1978	144.20	– 14
1979	139.92	– 3
1980	143.72	+ 3
1981	153.42	+ 7
1982	159.87	+ 4

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* Approximately 24.4 Sri Lanka rupees (SRs) = 1 US dollar.

The basis for such a calculation is found in the data collected from the annual school census which is conducted on 1 March of every year. The census schedules collected from nearly 9600 schools contain a table which gives a breakdown of teachers' salaries according to the level of education. A teacher's salary is divided (if necessary) into two levels according to the length of time spent by the teacher at each level. As teachers' salaries constitute 85 per cent of the recurrent expenditure on general education, reasoning suggests that a breakdown of the recurrent expenditure in proportion to salary payments to teachers in the different cycles would indicate the approximate recurrent expenditure by level of education. According to the census data collected from the schools, the salaries of teachers in primary and secondary education stand in the ratio of 1:1.43. Application to these ratios to the total recurrent expenditure of

1982 yields a figure of SRs 843,630,000 with respect to primary education. The recurrent unit costs of the different levels of education obtained by dividing the derived recurrent expenditure figures by the relevant enrolments are; Primary (K-V), SRs 400; and Secondary (VI-XII), SRs 938.

Curriculum diversification and employment of specialist teachers in the junior secondary and senior secondary levels are the two major factors contributing to the differences in the unit costs. While unit costs provide general indices of the magnitudes of expenditures, they fail to provide indices of quality. Quality of education is a function of the resources made available to the individual schools. Schools in the remote rural areas of the country have relatively poor facilities and the quality of education provided at a given level tends to be low in comparison with that of well-developed urban schools.

Education is free in all state schools and state-assisted private schools. Free textbooks are provided for all pupils in the primary and junior secondary grades of both government and private schools. Contributions made by community members and other voluntary organizations represent less than 5 per cent of the educational budget. Pupils voluntarily pay facility fees which vary from SRs 5 to 20 per pupil per term. Facility fees are used by school heads for improving library and sports facilities and for meeting other approved items of expenditure.

Construction of school buildings is financed from allocations provided in the estimates of the Ministry of Education and from funds provided in the decentralized budget. Funds in the decentralized budget are used on an electorate basis according to priorities determined by members of Parliament and regional directors of education. As mentioned earlier, buildings in junior and senior secondary schools are used to conduct classes in both primary and secondary grades and hence it is not possible to separately indicate the financial provisions for primary education.

In addition to infrastructural facilities provided by the Ministry of Education and the decentralized budgets, school development societies, parent-teacher associations and old boys/girls associations have constructed classroom blocks, assembly halls, library buildings and other similar structures to benefit the schools with which they are associated. While voluntary bodies make a useful contribution towards infrastructural development, the voluntary nature of the contributions renders the pre-assessment of the magnitude of voluntary support very difficult when a construction plan with phased-out targets for the development of infrastructural facilities has to be prepared.

A recent innovation is the design and implementation of integrated rural development programmes with assistance from the World Bank and other agencies such as SIDA and NORAD. Under the education component of the integrated rural development programmes, classrooms have been constructed for both primary and secondary schools. In two districts of the country, the main thrust of the education component is the development of primary schools.

While educational expenditure has increased (both at current and constant prices) its share in the government budget has fallen from the peak figure observed in the 1960s. Per pupil expenditure (at constant prices) from 1977 to 1981 remained lower than in 1976 and the 1982 figure was only slightly higher than the 1981 figure.

Chapter Two

ACCESSIBILITY OF EDUCATION

The adoption of universal franchise in 1931 increased the momentum of forces seeking to accelerate the pace of development of the country towards the ideal of equality of opportunity. The demand for facilitating access to education led to the introduction of a series of reforms including the removal of inequalities in education. The introduction of free education and the adoption of mother tongue as the medium of instruction in all schools abolished the dual-school system characterized by the existence of English schools and Swabasha schools. The establishment of central schools in rural areas and the awarding of scholarships to bright pupils from the lower socio-economic strata, the recruitment of increasing numbers of teachers and the expansion of educational facilities at all levels resulted in phenomenal increases in pupil enrolments. Pupil enrolments increased from 1.4 million in 1950 to 2.7 million in 1970 and to 3.4 million in 1982. The greater part of this increase was in the primary level.

Adequacy and accessibility of education has to be measured in terms of number and location of schools, size of schools, school resources and curriculum. Location of a school within walking distance of a child's home is a factor that promotes school attendance. In Sri Lanka no child who has reached the age of school admission is refused admission to the school closest to his/her home unless the school is so overcrowded that alternative accommodation has to be found for him/her in another school which again is not far from home. The relatively high school density has greatly facilitated access to education. For the country as a whole there are four schools for every 30 sq km and among the districts this number varies from 1 to 22. The districts with low school densities are Vavuniya, Mullativu, Moneragala and Polonnaruwa.[10] However, in terms of the number of schools the first three of these districts have a larger number of schools than the national average of six per

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[10] *Needs of Children in Sri Lanka.* Colombo, Marga Institute, 1980. p. 246.

10,000 population. The districts with relatively low school densities tend to have relatively low population densities.

The country has a wide network of schools extending to the most remote parts of the country. However, parameters such as population density and transport facilities confer advantages associated with urbanization on some areas of the country. One of the effects of population density is reflected in school size which tends to be small in sparsely populated districts and regions. The district with the largest number of small schools is Kurunegala and the district with the largest percentage of small schools is Vavuniya. Other districts which have relatively large concentrations of small schools include Ratnapura, Bandarawela, Anuradhapura, Jaffna, Kandy, Nuwara Eliya and Galle.

There are 2249 schools or nearly 23.7 per cent of the schools in the country that fall into the category of small schools. There are 692 small schools having one teacher each and 798 schools having two teachers each. In other words nearly 66 per cent of the small schools have either one teacher or two teachers each. Enrolment is one of the factors taken into account in providing facilities and teaching staff personnel to schools. Adoption of a uniform pupil-teacher ratio as the basis for the recruitment and deployment of teachers often compels small schools to combine classes at different grade levels.

The number of pupils in a given school is reflected in the presence or absence of parallel classes in the different grade levels and in the class size. The prestigious schools in urban areas are multiform-entry schools where average class size is generally large. Small schools are single-form-entry schools with small pupil numbers at each grade level. The median values of class size by grade and district show that the highest median value for any grade in any district is 37 and the lowest median value is 9. Among the districts Colombo has the highest median value and Mullativu has the lowest. Both Mullativu and Vavuniya have median values below 16 indicating the existence of a relatively large number of small schools.

Small schools are generally located in the remote and uncongenial areas of the country where the social, economic and educational levels of the inhabitants are relatively low. The disadvantages associated with poor environments are reflected in the small schools which have inadequate infrastructural facilities. Qualified teachers from the more favourable parts of the country are reluctant to serve in uncongenial stations and as a result small schools have a very high percentage of teachers whose competency levels are low. Due to low pupil enrolments the majority of the small schools have to continue as one-teacher or two-teacher schools. However, the teachers are not properly trained for multigraded teaching. Under such circumstances, the performance levels of the pupils are low.

A programme was launched in the 1970s with UNICEF assistance to ameliorate the conditions of small schools in the country. While some schools benefited from the assistance, it was generally not enough to meet even basic needs. The problems of the small schools cannot be solved by efforts confined to the schools alone as many of their problems have roots in the impoverished environments. Agency collaboration, community involvement and resource allocation are needed to solve the problems of the small schools.

Participation in education. In 1972 the age of admission was raised from five to six, thus reducing the number of new entrants to the lowest grade. With the resulting reduction in enrolments in the upper grades in subsequent years, the total primary enrolment from 1972 to 1977 remained lower than in 1971 (see Table 2). The number of primary pupils dropped from 1,786,502 in 1971 to 1,471,431 in 1972. From 1972 to 1977 the average percentage growth rate of the primary enrolment was 0.34. The age of admission to school was again lowered to five in 1978 and pupil numbers in the primary cycle rose from 1,492,147 in 1977 to 1,908,530 in 1978, registering a percentage increase of 27.9. From 1978 to 1982 the primary enrolment increased at an average percentage growth rate of 2.6. For the period 1971 to 1981 the average percentage growth rate of primary enrolment remained at 1.9.

The country has a value system which abhors any kind of discrimination on the basis of sex. The general attitude of the community towards the education of females is reflected in the enrolments and the facilities available for education. The large majority of the schools (96.3 per cent) are mixed institutions where boys and girls learn together as brothers and sisters. The ratio of males to females in the primary cycle was 1.1:1 in 1975. The ratio improved slightly (in favour of females) to 1.07:1 in 1981. The ratio of males to females in the 5 to 11 age-group is 1.4:1, indicating a slightly higher participation rate for the males. The females in the primary cycle as a percentage of the total primary enrolment do not vary markedly in the different districts of the country. Forty-eight per cent of the primary enrolment of the country consists of females and among the districts this percentage rises to 49.5. It is significant to note that districts such as Mannar and Batticaloa with large concentrations of Muslims have percentage values very close to the national average. There is little difference between urban and rural areas in the percentage of females in primary education. This is primarily attributable to the equality of values attached by parents to the education of their daughters whether they reside in urban or rural localities.

The primary cycle comprises six grades (K-V) and the age-group corresponding to this cycle is 5 to 11. The population in this age-group was 2,333,522 in 1971. The 5 to 11 age-group increased at an average annual rate of 0.18 per cent from 1971 to 1981. Population data from 1971 to 1981 and the projected population of 1990 and 1995 are presented in Table 1. The percentage growth from 1963 to 1971 was 2.01 and according to projections the population in the 5 to 11 age-group would grow from 1981 to 1990 at an average rate of 1.6 per cent. The lower growth rate observed from 1971 to 1981 is primarily attributable to a decline in fertility during this period.

Due to grade repetition the primary pupil enrolment is greater than the 5 to 11 school age-group as some of the pupils in the upper primary grades are older than 11. Some of the children in the 5 to 11 age-group who are not attending school today would enter school later. The enrolment ratio obtained by dividing the primary enrolment by the primary school age population is not an age-specific enrolment ratio. If repetition is ignored, this ratio may be viewed as consisting of two components. one indicating the age-specific enrolment ratio and the other reflecting the effect of late entry on participation. The success of the measures taken by the state to democratize primary education may be partially measured in terms of changes in enrolment ratios for the whole country and the districts from 1971 to 1981.

The enrolment ratio of the primary school age-group was 71.8 in 1971 and moved upward throughout the period to reach the value of 90.0 in 1981. The enrolment ratios of the different districts of the country in 1981 are shown in Table 4. The highest ratio (94.9) is recorded for Matale and the lowest ratio (77.9) for Mullativu. There are 10 districts that have ratios above the national average of 90.0.

The age of admission to school is five. However, many children enter school at an older age and in consequence the age composition of pupils in the lowest grade of the school system shows a spread between five and eight (a small percentage is over eight years). Eighty-seven per cent of the new entrants to the lowest grade are in the 5 to 6 age-group. An age specific enrolment ratio for the 5 to 6 age-group may be derived by dividing the 5 to 6 year-old entrants to kindergarten (the lowest grade) by the population in the age-group 5 to 6. The enrolment ratio of 5 to 6 year-old males in the country is 83.6 and that of females in the same age-group is 83.7. Relatively low ratios are generally observed in districts with low population densities. In the thinly populated districts of the country the school density tends to be low and children in these districts have to walk greater distances to attend school than children in the other parts of the country. This is one of the reasons for the relatively low participation of the 5 to 6 age-group in such districts.

Admission of children to government schools is characterized by the absence of discrimination on the basis of race, religion or sex. Unlike many countries of the developing world, the female in Sri Lanka has not experienced discrimination in education. Although males slightly outnumber females in primary education, a slight female dominance is observed in the higher grades. The ratio of females to males changes from 1:1.07 in the primary cycle to 1.03:1 in the junior secondary cycle and to 1.37:1 in the senior secondary cycle.

Grade repetition. Repetition rates are sometimes used as indices of internal efficiency since grade repetition leads to an increase in the number of pupil years needed for completing a given cycle of education. Repetition can be reduced by implementation of appropriate curricula, adoption of suitable instructional practices, remedial instruction for slow-learners, remedial treatment for children suffering from mental and physical handicaps and creation of conditions conducive to effective teaching-learning.

Generally, the repetition rates rise from kindergarten to grade III and thereafter a downward trend is observed. The districts of Colombo, Gampaha and Kalutara have relatively low repetition rates and high rates are observed in the districts of Batticaloa, Nuwara Eliya, Tangalle, Mullativu and Trincomalee. According to instructions issued by the Ministry repetition is allowed in grades X and XII to enable pupils to take the public examinations for the second time, if necessary. However, the Ministry has refrained from taking a definitive stance in relation to repetition in the other grades. Some schools adhere to a policy of automatic promotion, while the others only promote those pupils who reach a satisfactory performance level. Repetition is almost non-existent in the non-examination grades of the prestigious schools of the country which are patronized by well-to-do parents.

Some of the causes of grade repetition are rooted in the socio-economic milieu of pupils. However, the relatively high percentage of repeaters in the lowest grade of the primary cycle in the districts of Nuwara Eliya and Mullativu (where the percentage of repeaters exceeds 15) is rather disturbing. Why should such relatively large percentages of pupils repeat? The argument for keeping some pupils in the same grade is based on the assumption that pupils who have failed to acquire the required skills and competencies in a given grade would, if promoted to the next grade, find it increasingly difficult to attain a satisfactory or acceptable performance level. Whatever the merits of this argument, the fact remains that in the large majority of schools the repeaters are exposed to an additional instructional programme, if necessary. The negative effect of repeating a grade may hasten premature leaving, especially in the case of those coming from disadvantaged backgrounds.

Drop-outs from the primary cycle. Dropping-out is a phenomenon produced by a complex of factors. Two studies conducted in recent years bring into focus the multiple causes of dropping-out.[11] The causes for dropping-out may be summarized as follows:

a) The low income and educational level of parents;

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[11] Phillip, U.S. *et al.* National *Study on Meeting the Needs of Young People Without Schooling or With Incomplete Schooling.* Colombo, Ministry of Education, 1981.

Haputhantri, S. A *Report on A Survey of Non School-Going Children and Students Who Drop Out of School at an Early Stage in Sri Lanka.* Colombo, UNICEF, 1979.

b) The low level of aspiration of parents and their children;

c) The lack of school facilities and easy access to secondary education in particular areas;

d) Poor school performance and grade repetition; and

e) Large family size (The effect of low income on dropping-out is augmented when the family size is large. Generally, the elder children tend to drop-out).

Numbers dropping-out from kindergarten (the lowest grade level) are generally very low and the drop-out rates applicable to kindergarten are negligible in many districts of the country. The drop-out rates are generally higher at the upper levels than at the lower levels of the primary cycle. The numbers dropping-out from the primary grades amount to 3.7 per cent of the total primary enrolment. The Colombo district has the lowest percentage of drop-outs while Nuwara Eliya has the highest. In many districts the drop-out rates progressively rise from the lower to upper grades. In some areas of the country, secondary school facilities are not available within easy access of pupils and dropping-out during transfer from the primary to the secondary cycle is one of the causes of the relatively high percentage of drop-outs observed at grade V. Nearly 29 per cent of all pupils entering at the lowest grade fail to successfully complete the primary cycle.

Repetition increases the number of pupil-years required for the completion of the primary cycle and dropping-out reduces the final output of the cycle. The effect of repetition and dropping-out is to increase (in terms of pupil-years) the cost of production of a graduate of the primary cycle. The number of pupil-years taken for the production of a graduate of the primary cycle in the different districts of the country is highlighted in a study made in 1982.[12] Under the rates of promotion and repetition prevailing in 1971, the average number of pupil-years taken for the production of a primary school graduate is 9.57. If the repetition rates and promotion rates relevant to 1981 are used for the determination of the number of graduates and pupil-years, the average number of pupil-years needed for producing one primary school graduate is 8.93.

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[12] Gunaratne, D. and Nawaratnarajah, S. *Inter-District Comparisons of Indices of Educational Performance.* Colombo, Ministry of Education, 1982.

In 1971 only 57.6 per cent of all pupils originating in the lowest grade of the primary cycle would ultimately complete the cycle, whereas in 1981 70.4 per cent of all pupils would graduate from the same cycle. In the absence of repetition and dropping-out the number of pupil-years required per pupil for completing the primary cycle is six. It is evident that the internal efficiency of the system, as measured by the number of pupil-years required per primary school graduate, has improved from 1971 to 1981.

Non-participation, late entry, grade repetition, irregular attendance and dropping-out are manifestations of interrelated forces originating in a disadvantaged background. Many parents in the low income brackets prefer to have their children at home to attend to domestic chores while they themselves go out to work or to have the children work to supplement the family income. Cultural and educational backwardness of parents tends to create a home atmosphere which discourages children from attending school. There is a close relationship between school participation and the social class to which a pupil belongs. Dropping-out cannot be eliminated by school-based efforts alone; nor can the formal system be of any use to those who would never enter it.

Although all the schools in the country have the same curricula, they do not have the same facilities. The lowest stratum consists of poor ill-equipped schools located in the urban slums, remote villages and in areas with a large plantation sector. These schools have relatively high drop-out rates and the performance levels of their pupils in literacy and numeracy are low. The formal school system with its strong academic bias eliminates those who fail to satisfy pre-determined performance criteria. This process hastens the dropping-out of those from the lower social strata. Many of the early drop-outs lapse into illiteracy.

Disadvantaged sections of the population

Slow learners and handicapped children. According to a survey conducted in 1981 nearly 15 per cent of the primary school population falls into the category of slow-learners.[13] The majority of them have failed to reach the minimum required standard in the three basic skills: reading, writing and mathematics. It is these slow learners who receive the least attention at school. The causes of slow-learning may include lack of motivation for learning; unstimulating school environment; low intelligence; emotional disturbance or maladjustment; absenteeism or irregular attendance; defective hearing/vision; malnutrition; and chronic health problems.

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[13] Piyasena, K. *Slow Learners in Our Primary Schools.* Colombo, Ministry of Education, 1981.

Poor health is an important factor contributing to poor attendance, poor school performance and dropping-out from school. The common health problems prevalent among school children in Sri Lanka include malnutrition; respiratory diseases; bowel diseases and worm infections; skin infections; poor vision and eye defects (vitamin A deficiency is prevalent among 2 per cent of the population); hearing defects; and dental disease.

Most of the above-mentioned health problems are preventable. Respiratory diseases, bowel diseases and skin infections are caused mainly by poor environmental health. Blindness is mostly due to the lack of vitamin A and many congenital defects could be corrected if detected during the early years.

Although free health services are provided in Sri Lanka through a wide network of hospitals and peripheral units, the Ministry of Health has not been able to provide all primary school children with regular medical inspections and treatment owing to the lack of sufficient medical personnel.

As a result of this situation, a programme was formulated jointly by the Ministries of Health and Education with the following objectives in view:

a) Training of school teachers to screen children for defects;

b) Referring children who are identified as having defects to clinics in government hospitals for treatment and follow-up action;

c) Imparting health education to children and the community; and

d) Improving environmental sanitation in schools.

Under this programme, which is currently in operation in two districts, one or two teachers from each school are trained to screen children with health problems. The training classes are conducted jointly by the Ministries of Health and Education. The officials of both these Ministries, operating within a given area, are briefed together so that there is better co-ordination in the implementation of the programme. School directors are also invited to participate in the training programme. The teachers are trained to identify malnourished children by maintaining growth charts. Whenever possible the midday meal is supplemented with food assistance received from the community.

Teachers devote about one hour a day to examine children and identify those with poor vision, defective hearing and other handicaps. Such children are either referred to government clinics or they are sent to camps organized for further screening and testing. If there are numerous children with a particular handicap, a camp is organized to treat them with the assistance of voluntary medical personnel and non-governmental organizations.

The programme will eventually be extended to all the other districts of the country.

Plantation-sector schools. Schools in the plantation sector are historically disadvantaged. During the greater part of their existence they have remained in relative isolation. During the nineteenth century and the early decades of the twentieth century, South Indian immigrant labour flowed into the country to work on the tea and rubber plantations. The immigrant workers residing on the estates providing cheap labour to the British planters. The changes which occurred in the mainstream of national life did not significantly improve the lot of the estate labourers as they remained isolated from the surrounding villages.

The Education Ordinances of 1907 and 1920 provided for the compulsory education of children of labourers resident on the estates. The superintendent of an estate was required to provide facilities for the education of children between the ages of six and ten and to appoint competent teachers. The Education Ordinance of 1947 raised the upper age limit of compulsory education to 14. The estate schools were periodically inspected by the Director of Education and they were financially supported by a government grant. In spite of the obligations imposed by law on the estate management, the educational facilities in the estate schools remained poor.

The curriculum of the estate schools consisted of reading, writing, mathematics, speech, games and drill. Girls were taught needlework whenever possible. The highest grade in an estate school was V and many children left school before completing this grade. Some children completed grade V and then gained admission to urban schools where they received their secondary education.

Although the plantation workers have linguistic, ethnic and religious affinities with the indigenous Tamils of Sri Lanka, they have evolved into a distinct ethnic group exhibiting the characteristics of a disadvantaged, exploited community similar to that of the villagers in the central highlands of the country. The present educational problems of the estate population are the consequence of a process that has occurred during a period of several decades. Specific causes may be summarized as follows:

a) The infrastructural facilities available for education are poor and inadequate;

b) The majority of the teachers are unqualified and professionally incompetent;

c) The qualified teachers working in the estate schools have come from the non-plantation sectors and they have no abiding interest in the plantation-sector schools;

d) Facilities available for education beyond the primary grade are negligible; and

e) The drop-out rates are relatively high.

The recent absorption of the estate schools into the national system of education has paved the way for designing and implementing a development plan aimed at preparing the estate population for active participation in the social life of the country. Nevertheless, the solution to problems facing the estate schools is difficult owing to socio-economic constraints. Recruitment of qualified personnel of 'estate-origin' to fill vacancies in the estate schools is difficult. Furthermore, the provision of necessary infrastructure would require heavy expenditure.

A new branch has been established in the Ministry of Education to assess the needs of plantation-sector schools and co-operate with the regional education departments in implementing programmes for the educational development of these schools. The following measures have been taken to improve the conditions of estate schools:

a) Initiation of steps to establish a special fund to provide financial allocations for the development of estate schools;

b) Recruitment of 400 teachers for the estate schools and initiation of steps to recruit 1000 more;

c) Inclusion of estate schools in the education component of the integrated rural development projects of districts which have a large plantation sector;

d) Provision of an allocation in the estimates of the Ministry of Education for the improvement of infrastructural facilities of estate schools; and

e) Initiation of a scheme to award scholarships to talented children in the estate sector.

The Ministry of Education has to maintain a balance in the provision of resources for the different parts of the country. The disadvantaged schools in the remote rural areas of the country have most of the same problems as the plantation-sector schools. Teachers' salaries account for nearly 85 per cent of the recurrent budget and recurrent expenditure inclusive of salary payments amounts to nearly 93 per cent of the total educational expenditure. Funds available for the improvement of disadvantaged schools, whether they be in the estate or the rural sector, are limited.

Public expenditure on primary education. In Sri Lanka primary education is provided in the primary schools and in the primary sections of secondary schools. In fact the majority of the schools with primary grades are secondary schools. There is no clear demarcation between institutions providing primary and secondary education and this fact is reflected in the accounting system. In other words, accounts are not separately maintained for primary and secondary education. Thus a breakdown of current and capital expenditures for primary education is not possible. As indicated in Chapter One the approximate expenditure on primary education can be derived but a breakdown of this expenditure into capital and recurrent components is neither possible nor meaningful in a situation where the same buildings are used for both primary and secondary education. Furthermore, the administrative and supervisory personnel provide their services for both primary and secondary education and any attempt to divide the expenditure for their services into components corresponding to primary and secondary education would amount to a theoretical exercise far removed from reality. For this reason no attempt is made in the present study to indicate the expenditures on such inputs as administration, supervision, school buildings and equipment for primary education.

Table 1. Population in 5 to 11 age-group corresponding to primary education level in the national system

Year	*Age-group population (5 to 11)*	*Average annual percentage growth rate*
1971	2,333,522	
1981	2,375,699	0.18
Projections		
1990	2,741,580	1.60
1995	2,796,852	0.40

Source: Figures for 1971 and 1981 are derived from population tables published by the Department of Census and Statistics and those for 1990 and 1995 are derived from projections made by the Ministry of Plan Implementation.

Table 2. Trends in primary education

R = Rural F = Female
U = Urban M = Male

Year	*No. of schools with primary grades*	*No. of enrolled pupils in primary education*			*No. of teachers in primary education*
	Total	*R*	*U*	*Total*	*Total*
1971[a]	8,158			1,676,051	
1975[a]	8,573	F 487,774	158,377	646,171	
		M 544,803	176,886	721,689	
1981	9,210	F 817,523	210,228	1,027,751	F 44,339
		M 881,398	226,261	1,107,659	M 19,176
1982	9,238	F 822,070	212,250	1,034.320	
		M 882,554	228,013	1,110,567	

Source: School Census – 1971, 1975, 1981 and 1982 (Ministry of Education).

Note: The fall in enrolment in 1975 is due to the raising of the age of admission from 5+ to 6+ years in 1972. The age of admission was again lowered to 5+ in 1978

[a] Government schools only.

Table 3A. Primary enrolment by grade and sex, 1981

Grade	*Sex*	
	Male	*Female*
Kindergarten	184,246	174,071
I	198,171	185,395
II	189,057	172,645
III	191,675	173,818
IV	187,626	174,398
V	156,884	147,424
Total	1,107,659	1,027,751

Source: School Census – 1981 (Ministry of Education).

Table 3B. Primary enrolment by age and sex, 1981

Age	*Sex*	
	Male	*Female*
5–6	147,118	142,990
6–7	160,076	153,316
7–8	159,378	151,369
8–9	164,641	157,026
9–10	166,414	158,117
10–11	157,265	149,206
Total	954,892	912,024

Source: School Census – 1981 (Ministry of Education).

Table 4. Geographical distribution of primary school age population and primary enrolments, 1981

Region/ Provinces	*Total population of primary education age-group*	*No. of schools with primary grades*	*No. of pupils enrolled in primary grades*	*Enrolment ratio*
Colombo	235,150	440	213,553	90.8
Gampaha	202,338	540	179,903	88.9
Kalutara	126,442	450	111,399	88.1
Kandy	180,399	725	164,959	91.4
Matale	58,337	297	55,357	94.9
Nuwara Eliya	82,049	377	64,750	78.9
Galle	127,823	490	117,656	92.0
Matara	106,574	368	98,352	92.3
Tangalle	72,553	256	67,851	93.5
Jaffna	135,577	539	120,247	88.7
Mannar	17,856	100	15,783	88.4
Mullativu	13,116	83	10,220	77.9
Vavuniya	17,866	127	14,805	82.9
Batticaloa	64,752	243	51,382	79.4
Ampara	72,728	268	65,382	89.9
Trincomalee	47,599	202	44,892	94.3

Table 4. *(continued)*

Region/ Provinces	*Total population of primary education age-group*	*No. of schools with primary grades*	*No. of pupils enrolled in primary grades*	*Enrolment ratio*
Kurunegala	193,926	905	181,843	93.8
Puttalam	81,413	314	73,295	90.0
Anuradhapura	102,167	505	94,652	92.6
Polonnaruwa	43,395	148	39,250	89.2
Bandarawela	109,861	502	96,025	87.4
Moneragala	49,182	182	42,849	87.1
Ratnapura	127,616	567	114,375	89.6
Kegalle	106,980	582	96,630	90.3
Total	2,375,699	9,210	2,135,410	90.0

Source: School Census – 1981 (Ministry of Education).
Census of Population – 1981 (Department of Census and Statistics).

Table 5. Institutions of primary education

Type of Institution	*Year*			
	1982	*1980*	*1975*	*1970*
Total primary schools/schools with primary grades	9,172	8,735	8,277	8,130
Of which number of one-teacher schools	692			
Of which number of two-teacher schools	798			
No. of teacher training institutions for primary education	17	13	23[a]	20[a]
No. of in-service training Institutions[b]				
Curriculum Development Centre	1	1	1	1
Schools for physically handicapped	13	12		
Schools for mentally handicapped	12	10		

Source: School Census – 1970, 1975, 1980 and 1982 (Ministry of Education).

a/ These institutions provided training for both primary and post-primary teachers.

b/ Presently there is no pre-service teacher-training. The teacher training institutions provide training for teachers in service.

Table 6. Teachers and supervisors for primary education, 1981

Level of basic qualification	*Teachers for Primary Education – number*			*No. of*
	Trained	*Untrained*	*Total*	*Supervisors*
Less than 10 year schooling	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
10-12 year schooling	50725	12790	63515	9202
University degree	–	–	–	–

Source: School Census – 1981 (Ministry of Education).

Table 7. Curriculum in primary schools, 1983

Number of working days for primary schools in a year: 181

Number of hours per week:	K – grade II	20 hours
	grade III – V	30 hours

Subject/Activity	*Grades*					
	K	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*
	hours	*hours*	*hours*	*hours*	*hours*	*hours*
Mother tongue (Reading, writing, speech, environment, religion)	8½	8½	8½	14	14	14
Mathematics	5	5	5	5½	5½	5½
Aesthetic activities (dancing, music, drama)	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½
Creative activities (handicraft, art, drawing, cutting etc.)	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½
Physical activities (sports)	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½
Recreational activities	2	2	2	2	2	1½
Second Language (English)	–	–	–	4	4	4½
Total hours	20	20	20	30	30	30

Source: Ministry of Education.

Chapter Three

NATIONAL POLICY AND PLAN FOR UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

Elements of national policy. Sri Lanka views education as a fundamental right of every individual. The acceptance of this view by every political party in the country is a manifestation of the importance which the country as a whole attaches to democratization of education. The pre-eminent position given to education in the country's value system has led to the enshrinement of the principle of universalization of education in the country's constitution which is the fundamental law of the land.

Provision of a legal basis for compulsory education, expansion of educational facilities and enforcement of compulsory attendance requirements are different dimensions of an endeavour to bring education within reach of all individuals. This multi-dimensional approach was adopted in the past to achieve the ideal of universal education. However, experience has clearly demonstrated that neither the expansion of facilities or the enforcement of compulsory attendance was sufficient to achieve universalization. Utilization of educational facilities is a function of the socio-economic status of the people and their attitudes. Improvement of socio-economic conditions would lead to a higher rate of participation. Similarly, expansion and improvement of facilities would increase participation only if the other factors which contribute to such participation change in a positive direction. As the rate of participation rises, more resources are needed to bring about a further rise.

Present efforts toward UPE cannot be accomplished without considering the particular circumstances of disadvantaged groups. Legal compulsion to enforce attendance at school would only add to the misery of parents who in their present situation find it difficult to send their children to formal educational institutions. While steps are being taken to further improve the formal system, alternative structures should be developed to benefit school drop-outs.

The origin of UPE can be traced to the British period when vernacular schools were established to provide primary education for the majority of the people. Although the British policy sought to provide an education for the masses, it was not concerned with equalization of educational opportunities. In fact the British encouraged missionaries to establish English-speaking schools to cater to the needs of the elitist groups within the country. Thus, there were well-equipped English-speaking schools drawing their pupils from the affluent stratum of society coexisting with ill-equipped Swabasha schools patronized by the majority of the people. This dualism persisted for decades even though the line of demarcation between the two categories became blurred after the introduction of the free education scheme and the adoption of mother tongue as the medium of instruction in all schools. The persistence of the dualism was partly due to the fact that there remained a system of dual management which provided for both state-run schools and a network of assisted schools managed by denominational bodies. A unified system of national schools came into existence with the takeover of assisted schools in 1960. This reinforced to a considerable extent the national effort towards equalization of educational opportunities.

As mentioned in Chapter One primary education was made compulsory under the Education Ordinances of 1907 and 1920. Penalties were imposed on parents who failed to send their children to school. The Education Ordinance of 1939 contained provisions for requiring education between specified age limits. Although there were no regulations enforcing compulsory attendance, the by-laws passed under the earlier Ordinances remained in force. The 1950s and 1960s witnessed a phenomenonal expansion of the educational system and a rapid rise in participation. During this period the legal requirement to attend school was de-emphasized and compulsory attendance by-laws were disregarded. However, non-enforcement of compulsory attendance should not be interpreted as an indication of relaxation of the national commitment to UPE. Strategies for UPE include the awarding of scholarships to talented children of poor parents, provision of free textbooks to all pupils in both state schools or private schools, the development of alternative structures such as literacy centres to benefit children who in present circumstances cannot benefit from the formal system and democratization of educational opportunities through school zoning and school clusters.

Provision of incentives. Participation in education is determined not only by the educational opportunities that are provided but also by the degree to which such opportunities are used. Provision of a wide network of schools is no guarantee that educational opportunities are within the reach of the intended target group. It has been observed that socio-economic factors keep a certain proportion of children of school-going age away from school. Several measures have been adopted by the state to reduce the cost of education to parents and to induce them to send their children to school.

A system is now in operation for the provision of free textbooks to all pupils who are in primary and junior secondary grades in both government and private schools. Textbooks provided for the different grades are as follows:

K–grade II:	Religion and mother tongue (Sinhala/Tamil)
grades III–V:	Religion, mother tongue (Sinhala/Tamil), mathematics and English
grades VI–VIII:	Religion, mother tongue (Sinhala/Tamil), English, mathematics, science and social studies
grades IX–X:	Religion, mother tongue (Sinhala/Tamil), mathematics, English, science, social studies, commerce and literature

The supply of free textbooks has contributed to increased retention of pupils within the system. The fact that the books were supplied to all pupils without considering the financial capacity of parents prevented a social stratification of pupils within the school.

Provision of free 'snacks' to all children in the lower grades of the primary cycle of selected schools in another positive measure taken to provide some degree of relief to the more economically depressed. The free mid-day meal programme is implemented in collaboration with the CARE.

Scholarships enable talented pupils from disadvantaged homes to continue education in better-equipped secondary schools. Children in the last grade of the primary cycle who perform well at the scholarship examination are entitled to financial assistance from the state if the income levels of their parents are low. The possibility of winning a scholarship for the continuation of education at the secondary level encourages primary pupils to stay at school and take the grade V scholarship examination.

Enrichment of the primary curriculum. Nearly 30 per cent of the pupils who enter the school system leave before completing the primary cycle. One of the reasons for the failure of the system to retain all pupils until completion of the primary cycle is the fact that the curriculum and the instructional methodologies often fail to stimulate and sustain interest. The promotion of activity-based methods, particularly through environmental studies and creative activities, is a major objective of quality improvement in primary education. The Ministry seeks to improve pupil performance through specialized primary teacher training, curriculum revision, textbook writing and the development of a minimum learning continuum. Assessment of pupil performance will be part of the teaching activity.

The decision taken by the Ministry to deploy graduate teachers in the primary grades is part of a system of innovations aimed at improving the quality of primary education.

The open school. The Ministry is committed to a policy of expansion of non-formal education based on the philosophy of continuing and recurrent education. Implementation of a proposal contained in *Education Proposals for Reform* will lead to the establishment of an island-wide network of open schools.[14] The open school will provide a variety of courses including personal enrichment courses, vocational courses and courses facilitating re-entry into the formal education system. The drop-outs from the formal system and the disadvantaged who have never gone to school will be offered opportunities for further development. Different types of non-formal education programmes will be offered using the facilities of a cluster of schools. One important function of the open school will be to function as a support centre for the large majority who leave school to enter the world of work.

School zoning and rationalization of the school network. A main weakness of past strategies was the emphasis placed on the development of individual schools in the endeavour to democratize educational opportunities. Development of a network of schools to meet the educational needs of identified geographical areas received little or no attention. A plan is being prepared by the Ministry of Education that will divide each district in the country into a number of school zones and develop a school network to meet the primary and secondary educational needs of the population of each zone. Each school zone would consist of 10-20 schools. Previously neglected areas within the zones will be identified for the purpose of locating primary schools. While primary and junior secondary educational facilities will be provided within easy access of children of primary and junior secondary school age, two or more zones may share the facilities of the same school for the provision of senior secondary educational facilities if the pupil numbers do not justify the maintenance of separate schools and if the distances involved in travelling are not too long. The rationalization plan also provides for the amalgamation and phasing-out of particular schools, depending on their locations and enrolments.

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[14] *Education Proposals for Reform*. Colombo, Ministry of Education, 1981.

One of the objectives of the school zoning and rationalization plan is UPE. School facilities will be used to benefit as large a proportion as possible of the school-age population. Regional education authorities will prepare a three-year rolling plan for the educational development of each zone taking into consideration the likely enrolments in each cycle of education. The zoning plans will be integrated into a three-year rolling plan for the educational development of the whole district/region.

The rolling plan will probably be unable to meet all the needs of the zones and the district within the three-year period. As the plan rolls forward by one year, another year will be added to meet requirements not included in the original three-year span. Each zone and each district will also have an annual plan based on the three-year plan. Funds for the implementation of the district educational development plan will mainly come from the Ministry of Education and the district development councils.

School clusters. The existence of a wide network of schools is not sufficient to bring about equalization of educational opportunities. Inadequancies in infrastructure and resources such as buildings, equipment and teachers, as well as environmental factors and the lack of a will to transform ideas into programmes of activity, have left a large number of schools less developed than others.

In order to overcome such deficiencies and to achieve a meaningful degree of rationalization in the use of resources, a reform proposal to establish school clusters will be implemented in stages. Schools within a defined geographical area or zone will be grouped into a cluster. Each cluster will function as an administrative entity for the purpose of planning the allocation of resources to cater to the needs of the student population within a geographically defined area. Details of this programme and a description of experiences from a pilot project are presented in Chapter Four.

School clusters will operate at the grass-roots level through the participation of local administrators, heads of schools, teachers, students and parents. It is expected to function as a system which would unite primary, junior secondary and senior secondary schools and create favourable conditions for mutual collaboration. It should help to eliminate unhealthy competition among individual schools and heads of schools, and ensure that pupils of poorly-equipped schools in a remote or suburban locality have access to better facilities. The core-school or the most developed school in the group will provide leadership in organizing the curricular activities on a cluster basis.

The conducive environment created in the teaching-learning situation as a result of the cluster system is expected to have an impact on the efficiency of the overall system leading to increased enrolment, retention and transition rates, particularly at the primary level. Based on the identification of problems at the cluster level, remedial measures are to be adopted to meet specific needs of the school-going population. A united effort at cluster level is likely to have a significant effect on universalization of educational opportunities at all levels.

Reduction of educational waste. The statistical analysis presented in Chapter Two indicates that Sri Lanka has not yet achieved UPE although the country's progress compares well with many others in the Asian region. The non-schooling gap is produced by premature school-leaving and by the fact that some children never come to school.

A survey conducted in 1979 centred on the causes of dropping-out. The survey findings clearly demonstrate that the main factors contributing to dropping-out are socio-economic. Dropping-out cannot be completely eliminated by curriculum development and instructional improvement. However, the proportion of drop-outs can be reduced by creating a more favourable school environment.

Dropping-out, whatever its causes, must be viewed as a waste of resources from the point of view of internal efficiency. It is also an indication of the considerable number of pupils who leave the system without completing the primary cycle. Strategies are being developed to reduce the number of drop-outs and bring the school-age population not attending school within the sphere of non-formal programmes.

As a result of the recent re-organization of the regional departments of education a number of projects were introduced for the educational development of the pupils. One of the projects is concerned with the reduction of the number of drop-outs. Each regional department has selected one or more geographical areas within the district/region for an in-depth study of the area-specific causes of dropping-out. An effort has been made to establish a dialogue with the parents. The homes of children identified as potential drop-outs are visited for the purpose of obtaining first-hand information and mobilizing efforts for improving the conditions in which they live.

Girls' education. In both urban and rural areas of the country girls are equal to boys in educational opportunity. Even in districts with relatively large concentrations of Muslims, the difference between male and female enrolment ratios is negligible. As female participation compares very favourably with that of males, it is unnecessary to have recourse to any strategy for achieving a higher female enrolment ratio.

Education in remote and isolated areas. Reduction and elimination of disparities between regions in the distribution of educational facilities is a cornerstone of government policy. Positive discrimination in favour of disadvantaged localities has contributed to reduction of both inter-district and intra-district disparities. However, school facilities available in thinly populated areas of the country remain inadequate and some children cannot attend school because the nearest school is not located within walking distance and transportation is limited. It is extremely uneconomical to establish schools in remote, sparsely-populated localities as school facilities would be grossly underutilized. Already the country has a large number of small schools with low utilization rates both in terms of teachers and overall space. In order to keep education within manageable limits and at the same time bring education within reach of children in remote thinly-populated areas, it may be necessary to move away from the traditional school model. Experience with literacy centres strongly suggests that non-formal schooling is likely to succeed where formal instructional methodologies fail.

Implications of UPE in terms of teacher supply and facilities

Although legal provision exists for making education compulsory, regulations specifying the age limits have not been framed under existing Ordinances. The rapid educational expansion witnessed in the 1950s and 1960s and the keen sensitivity of parents to the educational needs of their children have brought about a relatively high participation in education. It is generally accepted that education between the ages of 5 and 14 should be compulsory for all boys and girls. Today 85 per cent of the population in this age-group attend school.

The age-group corresponding to the six-year primary cycle (grades K-V) is 5 to 11. The projected population in 1990 for this age-group is 2,742,000. Universalization does not imply universal non-repetition In the Sri Lankan context, repetition is likely to continue even after attaining universalization, and the primary enrolment would therefore be greater than the 5 to 11 year-old population.

The primary enrolment in 1982 is nearly 2,145,000 and the average annual increase in the primary pupil population is approximately 45,000. If the present trend continues, the primary enrolment in 1990 will be 2,505,000. This figure is less than the projected primary school population in 1990 by 237,000. The resources required for coping with the enrolment increases depend on whether the increases are due to trend-continuation or to planned action to achieve universalization. To simplify the calculation of financial requirements, it is assumed that the effect of grade repetition on the size of the primary school population is negligible.

Construction of additional classrooms needed may be phased over a six-year period beginning in 1984, with a view to reducing the annual financial burden. Similarly the recruitement of teachers can be phased on the basis of the annual enrolment increases. The phasing of recruitment will have very little or no effect on the final increase in recurrent expenditure. Funds needed for the provision of teachers and classrooms are shown below.

	If present trends continue	*If universalization is achieved by 1990*
Additional teachers	9,000	15,700
Additional classrooms	7,875	13,800
Salary for additional teachers	SRs 78,300,000	Srs 136,590,000
Total expenditure on additional buildings – six year period	SRs 393,750,000	Srs 690,000,000
Annual expenditure on additional buildings	SRs 62,625,000	Srs 115,000,000
Per cent increase in annual recurrent expenditure	4.0%	6.7%
Per cent increase in annual capital expenditure	38.4%	67.6%

Primary enrolments in non-state schools amount to nearly 1.5 per cent of the total primary enrolment in the country. As the expenditure is proportional to enrolment, the state will have to bear 98.5 per cent of the financial burden indicated.

If present trends continue, enrolments in the primary grades will increase to 2,505,000 and the enrolment ratio will rise to 91.4 by 1990. This is slightly higher than the present enrolment ratio which is 90.0.

The difference between the projected primary enrolment and projected primary school-age population in 1990 is 237,000. As mentioned previously this gap would consist of both drop-outs and those who never enter the formal system. The drop-outs will not return to the formal system as long as the conditions which cause premature leaving persist. Those who have never gone to school even when facilities were readily available are also unlikely to participate in formal education. The Ministry of Education has therefore organized literacy centres to meet the needs of school drop-outs and non-participants. Currently these centres cater to the needs of several age-groups including adolescents.

Experience with literacy centres has convinced the Ministry that the needs of drop-outs and non-participants can best be served by flexible time scheduling which would permit pupils to arrive and depart at times convenient to them and by organizing instructional programmes specially suited to the needs of disadvantaged groups. Such programmes should be flexible in terms of content and hours of instruction per week. Instructional sessions should be held in the morning or afternoon and during week-days or week-ends.

For reasons already indicated, the non-schooling gap must be eliminated not only by expanding formal instructional programmes but also by introducing new modalities outside the formal system and by expanding existing non-formal programmes. With regard to UPE the following strategies may be adopted:

a) Expansion of the literacy centre programme to include all the electorates of the country;

b) Establishment of institutions similar to the literacy centres in the remote areas of the country to exclusively serve the educational needs of children of primary school-age, using the resources available in the village: temple, community centres and other similar entities or organizations;

c) Establishment of a programme at one of the existing teachers' colleges (or at a specialized institution) for training voluntary workers to teach primary school-age children attending literacy centres and similar institutions;

d) Initiation of a UNICEF-assisted 'awareness-creation' programme for sensitizing parents to the need for primary education.

The present number of primary teachers is 62,319 and according to the present attrition rates the system is likely to annually lose about 1,100 primary teachers. The average annual increase in primary enrolment is about 45,000 and the number of teachers needed for this enrolment increase is about 1,300. Therefore the system needs to annually recruit 2,400 primary teachers. The number of primary teachers to be trained is equal to the number of new recruits and the backlog of untrained teachers. The number of untrained primary teachers is nearly 13,000. The existing primary teacher training instituions annually admit about 1,000 trainees to their programmes and a further 1,600 trainees are admitted to the postal training programme. The number of teachers that must be recruited is only slightly less than the total number of trainees admitted to the institutional and postal training programmes. As the backlog of untrained teachers could persist for a long time, alternative strategies and modalities have been implemented for training teachers. As pre-service training is to be introduced the present capacities of the existing teacher-training institutions have to be increased to accommodate the new recruits and non-institutionalized programmes have to be expanded and further developed to clear the existing backlog of untrained teachers. Currently action is being taken to develop eight teachers' colleges to provide pre-service training facilities.

As the present system of training is one of in-service training and sufficient numbers of persons with the requisite qualifications are available in the labour market, recruitment of the required number of primary teachers does not present any major difficulty if funds are available. However, the question of in-service training has to be carefully considered, especially in view of the fact that the Ministry has already taken steps to introduce a system of pre-service training.

In addition to the existing institutional and postal training courses, the Ministry has formulated a plan to provide a non-residential two- to three- year course for training teachers for elementary education, i.e., the first eight grades of the school system. The course content will be similar to the content of the present primary course with suitable additions and modifications to cover the grades not included in the primary cycle. Training classes and contact sessions will be conducted at 40 centres to be established on a district basis during week-ends and school vacations. The tutorial staff of a training centre will mostly include lecturers of teachers' colleges. Initially 1,500 will be admitted to the centres and later this number will be increased to 2,000.

The combined capacity of the training centres and a correspondence course will enable the Ministry to clear the existing backlog of untrained teachers in about four years.

Conclusion. Although Sri Lanka has achieved a high level of participation in primary education, the country is likely to progress toward universalisation rather slowly.

Participation in education is a function of a multiplicity of factors and the mere provision of teachers and classrooms is unlikely to significantly affect the enrolment ratio. Many children in disadvantaged environments do not attend school even when facilities are available within easy reach. Strategies for improved participation must take into consideration both the needs of deprived localities and the need to optimize the use of available resources.

In order to bring about conditions conducive to UPE it is necessary to have recourse to a gamut of strategies such as the use of formal and non-formal systems both for teacher training and imparting of instruction, involvement of voluntary workers and mobilization of community resources, establishment of linkages between the formal and non-formal systems, adoption of correspondence education methodologies to augment the supply of trained teachers and involvement of voluntary workers in non-formal programmes designed to help primary school-age children who do not benefit from the formal system.

The policy objectives underlying the present efforts and the strategies employed for achieving UPE may be summarized as follows:

a) Reduction of inter-district and intra-district disparities to bring about democratization of education;

b) Positive discrimination in providing facilities to bring education within reach of disadvantaged groups;

c) Enrichment of the primary curriculum to provide stimulating experiences for growing minds;

d) Enhancement of the internal efficiency of the system through reduction of repetition and drop-out rates;

e) Rationalization of the school network to optimize the use of resources in the endeavour to provide equal educational opportunities;

f) Development of formal and non-formal programmes with cross linkages to facilitate the flow of pupils between the two systems;

g) Employment of non-formal modalities to meet the educational needs of school drop-outs and non-participants;

h) Development of management capabilities for principals of schools to increase the efficiency of the system;

i) Provision of incentives to retain the school-age population within the school system; and

j) Integration of educational and rural development activities at the grass-roots level.

For more than fifty years Sri Lanka has consistently adhered to a policy of democratization of education. Implementation of this policy has resulted in a relatively high level of participation. However, the country has to progress further to achieve UPE. Improvement of socio-economic conditions, especially in the disadvantaged localities; improvement and further expansion of the school network within the formal system; and the adoption of alternative structures for the education of those who have not benefited from the formal system will hasten the process of universalization.

Chapter Four

SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS

From 1978 to 1980 a number of committees studied and reported on general technical, higher education and vocational/apprenticeship training. The reports of these committees provided the basis for the preparation of a White Paper on Education which was presented in Parliament in August 1981. The White Paper proposals, which were debated and discussed in Parliament and at public forums, will determine to a great extent the course of educational development in the years to come. Most of the significant developments that have either taken place or are on the horizon owe their origins to implementation of some of the White Paper proposals or initiation of steps to create conditions necessary for implementation of the White Paper proposals. Some of the significant developments that have a bearing on primary education are briefly described in the following.

Development of management capabilities for principals of schools. The problems of management which manifest themselves at the school level are attributable to deficiencies in planning, programming and implementation. The failure on the part of a principal to conceive and operationalize the school as an organizational and planning entity perhaps arises from the fact that he has not been adequately trained to organize and supervise the educational processes within the school.

The Staff College, which is under the supervision of the Ministry of Education, formerly provided courses of training for directors of education, chief education officers, education officers, circuit education officers and principals of schools. Due to resource limitations the College was able to help only a small percentage of principals. Further follow-up action after training was minimal and no systematic impact evaluation was undertaken. After the establishment of the Management Training Centre in early 1983, the Staff College was relieved of its responsibility for training directors of education, chief education officers and education officers. The

College now concentrates most of its resources and time on the provision of courses of training for principals of schools.

A recent innovation designed to improve the management capabilities of principals of medium-sized schools is the introduction of a plan to provide on-the-job training. The trainers are experienced principals who have been specially trained in planning and management. Each of them functions as a principal of a large school and also visits 10 to 15 selected schools for the purpose of assisting the heads of these schools to run their institutions as efficient managers. As the trainer-principal and the trainee-principal are both heads of schools, the trainer is more acceptable as a consultant to the trainee than an officer from the District Department of Education. In addition to discussing problems and offering solutions during visits, in-service training courses are also organized to discuss action paths for overcoming diagnosed common weaknesses in school management.

All schools have been required since 1982 to implement a school development plan. Objectives of the pupil-development projects which are being implemented under this plan are the reduction of grade repetition and premature dropping-out, reduction of pupil absenteeism, provision of remedial classroom instruction, detection of physical disabilities with appropriate remedial treatment and provision of midday meals to undernourished children. Progress reports on projects are regularly forwarded to the Regional Education Department through circuit education officers. The school development plan is being closely monitored by the Ministry of Education.

School clusters. A rational deployment of resources to maintain equitable standards in the provision of education in all parts of the country is preferred to a system in which schools fiercely compete for the limited resources of the state and the patronage of affluent parents and thereby increase the resource imbalance between the few large schools and the many small schools.[15]

Education Proposals for Reform introduced the concept of the school cluster as a means to accomplish the following:

a) Reduce the existing inequities in the provision of educational facilities;

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[15] *Education Proposals for Reform.* Colombo, Ministry of Education, 1981.

b) Enable schools to be managed by more competent personnel, recognizing the key role of the head of the school; and

c) Facilitate even the smallest schools to belong to a group whose collective resources would permit the provision of expensive facilities and services to all schools within the group and thereby induce all parents, both rich and poor, to rely on their local schools for the education of their children.[16]

A plan prepared by the Ministry envisages the grouping of schools in a defined geographical area to form a 'cluster' for the purpose of better organization and management, leading to more efficient utilization of resources both at the state and community level. The cluster of schools will function as an administrative entity to meet the educational needs of the entire area it serves.

The present focus of planning and development of facilities is the individual school. This has resulted in unhealthy competition among schools for facilities and has led to irrational allocation of resources. The cluster system is an attempt to shift the focus from the individual school to a group of schools within a defined geographical area serving as a planning unit at the grass-roots level. Such a system will minimize unnecessary duplication and resource waste through rationalization and optimum utilization of teacher resources and physical facilities. It will lead to better supervision of the schools as well as quality improvement in smaller schools, the majority of which have only primary grades.

Each cluster will comprise a number of primary schools and a few secondary schools. The largest secondary school in a cluster will be designated the core school. The principal of the core school will function as executive head of the cluster, i.e., cluster principal. Each school cluster will have a Board of Principals consisting of the cluster principal as chairman and principals of the member schools.

The Board of Principals will perform the following functions:

a) Plan the allocation of resources on a priority basis to meet the needs of the member schools and thus eliminate unhealthy competition for limited resources;

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[16] *Education Proposals for Reform.* Colombo, Ministry of Education, 1981. p 9.

b) Plan and implement measures to improve the teaching/learning environment and teaching methodology by co-operative efforts within the cluster enabling exchange of experiences and creating an atmosphere where teachers could help each other in the different schools. Such an environment encourages creativity and innovative ideas to suit local conditions;

c) Foster greater community participation in the activities organized at the cluster level;

d) Plan non-formal education on a cluster basis so that out-of-school education activities can be organized in collaboration with the Non-Formal Education Branch of the Ministry of Education, voluntary organizations and the local administration; and

e) Organize co-curricular activities on a cluster basis so that neglected schools and small primary schools benefit as members of the cluster.

The Ministry commenced implementation of the cluster system on an experimental basis in 1981. By mid-March 1983, 21 pilot school clusters were in operation. It involved 240 schools in 10 educational regions. 222 of the 240 schools were either primary schools or junior secondary schools with primary grades.

The leadership qualities of the cluster principal and the positive attitude of teachers toward change and innovation contribute to the successful operation of the clusters. The pilot project indicates that the school clusters have a great potential to develop as rational planning and administrative units for the effective harnessing and deployment of resources available within a community. The project will be modified and improved in the light of experience before being adopted on an island-wide scale.

School zones. The education circuits into which a district is divided for the purpose of administration has the following disadvantages from the standpoint of educational development:

a) The geographical area covered by a circuit is too large to permit effective school planning and supervision; and

b) Accurate population data applicable to a circuit are not obtainable (the geographical unit used for the conduct of the population census is the Grama Sevake division).

In order to provide a more meaningful basis for educational planning and school supervision, the present education circuits will be replaced with school zones in 1984. As a school zone will consist of two or more Grama Sevaka divisions, it will be relatively easy to obtain accurate data on the school-age population. It will then be possible to assess the magnitude of the present and future demand for primary and secondary education.

The guidelines prepared by the Ministry for the demarcation of school zones were sent to six regional directors of education who used the guidelines for establishing school zones in their districts on an experimental basis. The Ministry revised the guidelines taking into consideration the observations made by the regional directors. The revised guidelines have been forwarded to all the regional directors of education who were expected to complete the demarcation of school zones in their districts before the end of 1983.

Each school zone will consist of 10 to 20 schools and will have a three-year rolling plan for the educational development of the zone. A school zone differs from a school cluster in that the schools in a zone retain their separate identities, though they form the components of a rationalized network. The school zone may be regarded as an intermediate stage in the development of the school cluster.

Multi-zone management and supervision. The purpose of demarcation of school zones is to create a school network within defined geographical areas. Administration and management of a large number of school zones by a single district department of education would fail to yield positive results. A mediating agency must be established between the school zones and the district education department to provide an organizational arrangement for effective management and supervision.

In order to provide the required organization for multi-zone management, education offices will be established in each district.

The number of education offices to be established under a district department of education will depend on the area of the district, population size, number of schools and enrolment. Each education office will generally cover 10 school zones or 120 to 150 schools. In January 1984 education offices will be established in three districts on a pilot basis with a view to extending the system to other districts by the beginning of 1985.

The inadequacy of transport facilities available to the district education departments makes the task of effective supervision of schools, especially the remote schools, difficult. Effective linkages cannot be forged between school-level planning and district-level planning. The education office will be in a better position to develop meaningful linkages with the schools and the school zones and thereby bring school-level and zone-level planning and programming activities within a framework of supervision that would facilitate the effective management of intra-zonal operations and inter-zonal relations.

The envisaged organizational set-up, with a separate division for school development, will identify specific problem areas for concentrated action in planning, plan implementation, monitoring and review. The supervisory activities will be directed towards appraisal and streamlining of delivery of educational services to schools.

National assessments of education progress. A study on the achievement of primary pupils has brought into focus the poor performance of pupils in reading and mathematics.[17] While marked disparities were observed among individual schools and between urban and rural schools, the performance level of the average and below average schools was particularly poor. Concern has prompted the Ministry of Education to search for appropriate means to reverse the trend. Curriculum revision, textbook writing, primary teacher training and suitable assessment procedures offer possibilities of performance improvement.

A special unit established at the Ministry is presently engaged in developing a minimum learning continuum (MLC) in language and mathematics. MLC assessment seeks to measure the performance of groups in relation to a specified objective. It is concerned with the determination of a national level of performance in a particular subject area. The assessment programme aims at measuring the knowledge, skills, and attitudes possessed by Sri Lankan pupils in the different grades of the primary cycle and measuring the changes (growth or decline) in their educational attainments during a specific period of time.

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[17] Kariyawasam, T. and Wanasinghe, J. *Achievement of Primary Level Students of Sri Lanka in Reading and Mathematics.* Colombo, Ministry of Education, Department of Educational Publications, 1982.

The goals of national assessment include the following:

a) Assessment of the current position and reporting on changes in the educational attainment of primary school children in language and mathematics;

b) Reporting on assessment findings in language and mathematics in the context of other variables such as educational and social conditions;

c) Dissemination of findings to the general public;

d) Advancement of assessment technology through on-going programme research and operation studies;

e) Reporting on long-term trends with regard to the attainment of primary school children in language and mathematics; and

f) Reporting on the curriculum changes necessary in language and mathematics at the primary level.

The items to be used for assessment will be written by a team of specialist teachers or educators in the area being assessed. These items will be reviewed by scholars and educators. Most of the items will be of the multiple-choice type, but many open-ended or free-response items will be included to assess the creativity of pupils. Sets of items varying in difficulty will be developed in order to assess what pupils of a given age know and can do.

Literacy centres. In 1981 the Ministry of Education conducted a survey of the school-age population not attending school. The survey findings are used to assess the number of young persons who form the non-schooling gap, their geographical distribution, their present position and their needs and aspirations. The survey reveals that the problems of illiteracy are particularly high among children in the urban slums and in the plantation sector. These children cannot be brought back to the formal system as it functions today. They currently help their parents to look after younger members of the family or are engaged in various activities which help supplement the family income. Many of them are exploited by unscrupulous elements. There appears to be a causal relationship between illiteracy and juvenile delinquency. Almost all the children brought before the juvenile courts in Colombo are from the slums and more than 75 per cent of them are illiterate.

It is against such a background that the Ministry initiated action to design and develop an alternative structure to enable non-school-going children to commence or resume learning under a system which is less rigid and less formal than the school system which is characterized by instructional and assessment methodologies that perform the function of selecting able pupils and eliminating those who fail to measure up to pre-determined standards. It is therefore critically important to evolve curriculum which takes into consideration the specific needs and interests of children and adolescents and the handicaps experienced by them in their disadvantaged environments. With a view to meeting the needs of children and teenagers without schooling or with incomplete schooling the Ministry of Education launched the literacy centres project in the second half of 1981. The objectives of the project are:

a) To develop a parallel structure having links with the formal system to provide needs-based learning experiences; and

b) To provide educational opportunities to non-school-going children in the 5 to 10, 11 to 14 and 14 + age-groups.

Eleven literacy centres were established in 1981 and today there are 60. A literacy centre is generally located in a school, a community centre or a temple. Each centre is run by an experienced teacher who is paid a special allowance by the Ministry. Adult education officers attached to the regional education departments exercise supervision over the centres. Adult education officers are also responsible for selecting suitable locations for establishing new centres. They work in close co-operation with voluntary organizations operating in the district. They visit the homes of non-school-going children to ascertain their needs and to motivate their parents to participate in the project.

Children attending a centre belong to different age groups. Their educational level varies from the ability to read a simple sentence to total illiteracy. The children at a centre are divided into three groups: 5 to 10, 11 to 14 and 14+. The staff consists of one or two teachers who are assisted by a few volunteers. The instructional modules for the 5 to 10 and 11 to 14 age-groups include lessons developed around basic needs, creative and recreational activities and life skills.

Illiterate teenagers in the 14+ group cannot gain admission to vocational training courses because of their illiteracy and their inability to make simple calculations. At literacy centres the instructional modules seek to develop the literacy, numeracy and vocational skills of this group.

Classes are conducted at the literacy centres in the afternoon and/or evening, three days a week. Attendance at a centre does not interfere with the income-earning activities of children who are presently engaged in such activities. The times of arrival and departure are not rigidly fixed. The flexible time scheduling, the informal atmosphere pervading the centres, the sympathetic understanding shown by teachers and volunteers, the nutritional supplements and recreational facilities provided are the main attractions which bring the disadvantaged children to the literacy centres.

A significant feature of the literacy project is multiagency participation. The Department of Social Services supplies cream-powdered milk to all children. The Health Department, through its local staff, assists the teachers to conduct medical examinations of children. The Department of Probation and Child Care has initiated action to attach a probation officer to each of the centres in the city of Colombo. This is a sequel to an experiment which is being implemented in collaboration with the juvenile court to divert delinquents and displaced children to literacy centres. Records are maintained of all children referred to the Ministry of Education by the juvenile court. Of the total number of children referred to the Ministry since August 1981, 48 had never attended school, 27 had lapsed into illiteracy and 18 could read and understand a simple sentence. All the children have entered literacy centres in Colombo.

The literacy centres project is still in a pilot stage. The details of implementation are worked out by the non-formal education division of the Ministry which also maintains directional supervision over the project activities in the districts. The immediate supervision over a centre is exercised by the Adult Education Officer of the Electorate in which the centre is situated. It is yet too early to evaluate the impact of the project. However, the dedication shown by the implementors at the different levels, the collaboration extended by a number of agencies and the positive response of the clients themselves may be construed as elements of incipient success.

Quality improvement in primary education. In designing curriculum for the different levels of the school system planners are faced with the necessity of reconciling the different views of educators, parents and politicians. Hence within the broad framework of national objectives it becomes necessary to establish objectives for each level of education and for each subject in the curriculum. The Curriculum Committee on Primary Education designs the broad-based national-level curriculum for the primary cycle. Specifications formulated by the Committee are elaborated into detailed curriculum guides which provide for appropriate variations and adaptations at the district level. A proposal to decentralize curriculum development work is now being studied by the Ministry. It is envisaged that the districts will be able to establish their own curriculum development units to adapt and expand the curriculum designed and developed at the national level.

Integrated rural development projects (IRDPs) are being implemented in a number of districts with assistance from The World Bank and donor agencies such as SIDA and NORAD. The education component of an IRDP focuses on the educational development of the area selected. The education component of the Badulla District Integrated Rural Development Project (BIRDP) depicts a trend towards decentralization of curriculum development to meet local needs. The guidelines, which were formulated by the Ministry for the preparation of the education component, were in keeping with the national policy on education. The following areas were critically examined by the Project Formulation Committee established to prepare the education component of BIRD: (a) curriculum design, resource materials and implementation; (b) teacher education and training; (c) remedial teaching; (d) classroom supervision and evaluation; (e) special education for the handicapped; (f) non-formal education and vocational training; (g) non-enrolment, absenteeism, repetition and dropping-out; (h) guidance and counselling; (i) environmental sanitation; (j) health and nutrition; (k) community participation; (l) provision of infrastructural facilities; and (m) organization systems, management practices and general supervision programmes.[18]

The majority of children in the Badulla District participate in elementary education only. Elementary education (grades I-VIII) and often only a few grades of primary education (grades I-V) are the only education experienced. A majority of such children find employment early in life in the plantation sector. Therefore vocational and non-formal education offer a supplementary educational experience.

Lack of syllabi and course guides, lack of proper understanding of the integrated curriculum at the primary level by untrained and inexperienced teachers, inadequate resource books and supplementary reading material for children, inexperience and lack of skills in multi-grade teaching necessary in small schools where there is only one teacher, insufficient emphasis on skill-building subjects in order that integrated teaching may be undertaken successfully, lack of understanding and maintenance of records in assessing a pupil's performance, lack of special provision for remedial teaching for the disadvantaged and challenging material for the gifted children, lack of curriculum materials and specific training in primary science and aesthetic studies including physical education, lack of materials and equipment for teaching at the primary level, high level of incidence of malnutrition and lack of proper staff supervision due to lack of prerequisite skills and knowledge of classroom practices are some of the problems and constraints which are expected to be overcome by curriculum development and orientation of personnel at the district level.

The education component of BIRDP comprises a number of programmes designed to meet the needs specified above. The focus of all these programmes is the quality improvement of primary education in Badulla District.

The education component of BIRDP signifies a new approach to regional educational development. Unlike other IRDPs, the education component of BIRDP views the provision of infrastructural facilities as subservient to quality improvement.

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[18] *Badulla Integrated Rural Development Project.* Colombo, Ministry of Education, 1983.

The implementation of programmes included in the education component of BIRDP will be closely watched by the Ministry and the experience gained will be used for the formulation of future regional plans and programmes aimed at bringing quality primary education within the reach of all concerned.

National Institute of Education. In pursuance of the policy of decentralization of educational administration, regional departments of education will take the initiative in adapting national policies to suit the particular needs of the districts. Curriculum development, teacher education and evaluation activities will be planned and implemented at the district level. District-level officers must be prepared for their new roles. A large network of district-based training centres is therefore required to meet the personnel training needs of the district departments.

Post-graduate training of educational personnel will be the responsibility of the Ministry. Post-graduate education programmes to be designed to meet the needs of the educational system should have relevance to current problems and priority projects.

Co-ordination of activities at the national and district levels and the need for periodic review of training systems has prompted the Ministry to formulate a proposal for establishing a National Institute of Education to:

a) Monitor and undertake research and development activities at the national level directed towards the improvement of performance of the general education system;

b) Identify priority problems and recommend appropriate remedial action;

c) Evaluate the impact of the curriculum and undertake research and development activities to improve classroom materials, evaluation techniques and school practices;

d) Identify the training needs of different categories of educational personnel and design and implement appropriate training programmes;

e) Monitor the performance of the personnel training and development programmes and establish specifications and standards for certification;

f) Develop educational technology and improve the effectiveness of learning and teaching by exploiting the potentialities of new media;

g) Provide information services to those involved in educational policy-making and development activities through the publication and dissemination of findings of educational surveys and research; and

h) Provide a consultancy service to other agencies involved in educational activities.

The proposed Institute will keep the general education system under surveillance, formulate recommendations for meeting national needs and co-ordinate the educational development and staff-training activities of the Ministry.

Use of a computer facility for data processing and progress control. On 1 March of each year, the Ministry conducts a school census to collect data from nearly 10,000 educational institutions including private schools and Pirivenas. The data include medium of instruction; age, grade and sex of pupils; qualifications, age and sex of teachers; grade repeaters by medium of instruction; infrastructural facilities available; results of public examinations; fees collected; contributions made by voluntary organizations; and other related matters. The data collected are manually processed and 40 statistical tables are prepared by the Statistics Unit. The data processing is time-consuming and up-to-date processed data are often not readily available for decision-making. Some tables are unable to be prepared due to time requirements. A case in point is the non-preparation of a table showing the distribution of pupils by grade and age. In order to eliminate the delay involved in processing school census data, arrangements have been made to use the computer facility of the Department of Examinations for the processing and analysis of educational data. Under this arrangement data collected from the 1983 school census are now being computer-processed.

Although the educational administration is decentralized, decision-making at the Ministry level has to be based on analysis of problems and appraisal of performance of the district education departments and the agencies that come under them. The efficient monitoring of progress on a large number of projects implemented at district and sub-district levels is a very difficult task. Two computer system analysts and a computer programme manager will be recruited to serve the Progress Control Unit of the Ministry. The Ministry will be linked to the Examination Department's computer through on-line and off-line terminals which will be used for both feeding and retrieving data. The terminals will be installed in 1984 at the new premises of the Ministry.

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APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

THAILAND

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE
FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
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ABBREVIATIONS

BMA : The Bangkok Metropolitan Administration
BPPHQ : Border Patrol Police General Headquaters
DGE : Department of General Education
DNFE : Department of Non-Formal Education
LAD : The Local Administration Department
MOE : Ministry of Education
MOI : Ministry of Interior
MUA : Ministry of University Affairs
NEC : Office of the National Education Commission
NSO : The National Statistical Office
OLEE : Office of the Local Elementary Education
ONPEC : Office of the National Primary Education Commission
OPEC : Office of the Private Education Commission
OPM : Office of the Prime Minister
OPS : Office of the Permanent Secretary
TTD : Teacher Training Department

Preface

Universalization of primary education (UPE) is one of the major priority goals of countries in the region of Asia and the Pacific. The developing countries in particular, are now vigorously engaged in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans and programmes aimed at making adequate and suitable opportunities for primary education available as soon as possible for all children and young people.

In 1983, as part of a major project under the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) on the Universalization of Education, 12 countries in the region undertook national studies. The national studies were conducted to analyse the stage reached by the countries in UPE, and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level; to review significant new and current developments in programmes and projects which the countries have undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education; and to contribute to achieving the target of primary education for all children. The studies were conducted by national institutes and professional groups under the guidance of high level committees of the Ministries of Education in the respective countries.

On completion of the national studies, a Regional Review Meeting was held in November 1983 which undertook an in-depth analysis of the methodologies of the national studies and examined their findings. The meeting also made suggestions for improving and updating the national studies tabled for review.

Following the recommendations of the review meeting, study teams in the participating countries have revised and updated the national studies. The present publication is an outcome of the collaborative and co-operative efforts of the member countries in understanding the progress made in the universalization of primary education, the nature and extent of problems and issues and their implications for achieving UPE in the region before the end of this century.

This series which provides a comparative view of the position of and progress made in UPE has been published with the view that the countries in the region, in their bid to step up measures for UPE, will find the information, experiences and conclusions useful in pursuing the goal of 'education for all' with a new vigor by drawing on the experiences of other countries with the same goals and objectives.

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INTRODUCTION

Thai education took a little more than an hundred years to evolve from its traditional form to the modern system that is known today. From the 1820s to the 1920s, through the years of Western political and military pressure on the Thai nation and Western intellectual challenge to the Thai mind, the transition was made from informal teaching to a standard education under the supervision of a centralized education system. And in this process of modernization, the old was inextricably mixed with the new, for even as new ideas were adopted, old institutions were adapted to make them more responsive to contemporary needs.

The desire to preserve the cultural heritage of the past and the recognition of the need for innovations ran through the reigns of King Nangklao, King Mongkut, King Chulalongkorn and King Wachirawut. Boys of Suan Kulap School were modernized royal pages. Chulalongkorn University grew out of the Royal Pages School whose students learnt the manners of the court at the same time as they studied to be provincial administrators. Mass education and universal compulsory primary education came to be based largely on the traditional foundation of education; the monasteries in the provinces and the metropolis.

The establishment of the modern system of education of course did not mean that it was immediately implemented. The contemporary political situation combined with the limited resources meant that declared intentions often took a long time before they could be fulfilled. Some of the plans and the projects themselves had to be modified as times passed and new needs arose. Nevertheless, the work begun during those years launched modern Thai education forward on a relatively healthy course.[1] With willing co-operation from all responsible agencies, both government and private, it was anticipated that universalization of primary education would be achieved in 1986.

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[1] Tej Bunnag "From Monastery to University Education in Thailand: A century of experience", Dept of Elementary and Adult Education, Ministry of Education, Karnsosana Press, 1970.

Chapter One

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Historical background

The history of Thai educational development can be traced back to the period of Thai Lanna and Sukhothai (1238-1378). There was an alphabet used by the Thais at least as early as the Nan Chow Period and later, King Ramkamhaeng modified the Thai Yhun and Thai Khmer Alphabets and developed the existing Thai alphabet in 1283. Education at this time was totally conducted by the monastery institutes. Senior monks taught junior monks and the junior monks taught youngsters who were staying in the temples. The teaching covered reading, writing and Buddhism.

In the Ayudhya Period (1350-1767), primary education was more structured. King Narai promoted formal education that required boys of 7-8 years old to go the nearly temple to study reading, writing, accounting and moral education. There were also some French missionary schools. Some significant developments included the first Thai textbook, *Chinda Manee* written by Pra Horthibordi (The Royal Prophet) around 1656. This textbook was used until 1880.

The modernization of primary education in Thailand began in 1868. The first school was established in the Royal Palace in 1871. It was the first school where the teachers were not monks and the first situated outside the temple compound. Nine years later, the first school for girls was in operation. The expansion of schools to the provinces began in 1884. One year later there were 17 schools in Bangkok and 13 in the provinces, and there were 2,044 students. The Department of Education was established in 1887 and three years of primary education was made compulsory in 1913.

Constitutional provision for primary education

All educational activities are responsive to the national policy. The policy for Thailand is wide-ranging and extracts include that: the

State shall promote and attend to education, having recognized that education has a high priority in its undertaking; the organization of education is the sole responsibility of the State; all educational management comes under the supervision of the State; the State shall make compulsory education universal. State and local educational institutes shall be provided free of charge; and as for non-compulsory education, the State shall lay down appropriate measures to guarantee a fair and democratic access to education within the framework of relevant legislations and taking into account the individual's ability.

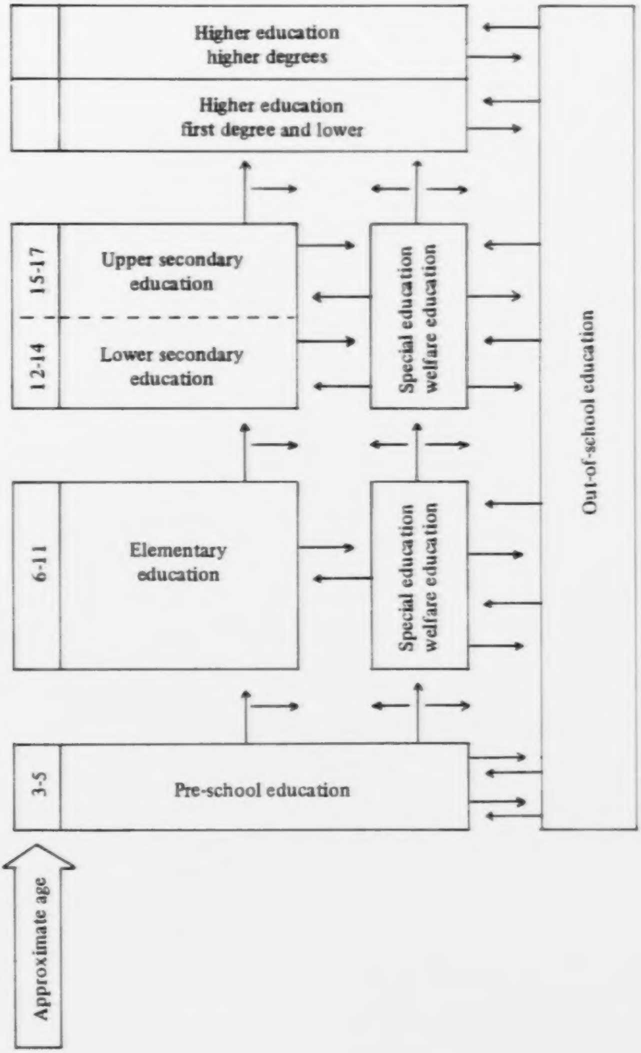
The policy also proclaims that the State shall: organize education such that all Thai citizens are able to communicate in Thai in an apt and efficient manner; step up and promote various kinds of out-of-school education in order to make available life-long education to all, especially to those who missed the initial formal schooling; make education accessible to the poor, the physically, mentally and socially handicapped as well as the educationally disadvantaged; accelerate and promote pre-school education. The State is also responsible for organizing all levels of teacher-training and producing well-qualified and able teachers for various educational institutes in compliance with the objectives laid down in the National Educational Scheme.

The State encourages experiment and research in education, the results of which will then be used to improve the existing education structure and lends large support to the production of textbooks, lessons and technical documents which do not run counter to Thai culture, regulations and law.

Under the National Education Charter approved by the National Education Commission in 1977, education is conceived as a continuing life-long process which promotes the quality of life of the citizen, enabling him to live a useful life in society. The education system as restructured by the educational reform introduced in 1978, comprises four levels of education, namely, pre-school or pre-primary, primary, secondary and higher as shown in Figure 1.

Pre-school education covers ages 3-5 and it is considered as preparatory to primary education. In turn, primary education lasts six years (ages 6-11) and leads to secondary education which comprises two, three-year cycles, the lower and the upper secondary cycles. Higher education may take place in a college or university or a special institute. It comprises diploma, degree and post-degree levels.

Figure 1. Chart showing educational system


Higher education higher degrees
Higher education first degree and lower
15-17
Upper secondary education
12-14
Lower secondary education
Special education welfare education
6-11
Elementary education
Special education welfare education
3-5
Pre-school education
Out-of-school education
Approximate age

Educational administration

All agencies whether governmental, local or private, as well as foreign institutes bound by international agreements or obligation, which are responsible for education administration in Thailand and come under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, shall organize education according to the National Educational Scheme, policy, work-plan, programmes, rules and regulations, as determined by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education shall be responsible for inspecting and applying appropriate measures to persuade and enforce those governmental agencies and organs mentioned above to comply with the present provision.

As for higher education, the institutes of higher education shall enjoy academic freedom, provided that they do not go against the policy, work-plan and programmes of the State and provided that they operate under the State's supervision and within the framework of relevant legislations.

With regard to special education or education for certain groups of individuals, whatever the case or created by whatever laws, its organization is to be carried out in collaboration with the Ministry of Education or the Bureau of State Universities in order that the implementation of education, at every level, of every kind and of every organization in Thailand, will be in line with the policy, work-plan and programmes of the State.

Since educational administration in Thailand is mostly centralized, the planning is conducted at the ministerial level.

In order to reduce education problems and improve the quality of human resources, targets for development are as follows:

On quantity. During the Fifth Educational Development Plan (1982-1986) a target has been set to expand the enrolment for pre-school education to cover 35.4 per cent of children in the pre-school age group. Primary education will be expanded to cover all students in the compulsory age group. The enrolment for lower secondary education, upper secondary education and higher education will be expanded to cover 48.3 per cent, 30.9 per cent and 4.8 per cent of the people in each age group respectively. In addition, non-formal educational services will also be provided to an average of 1.5 million persons annually.

On quality. 1. Reduce the rate of repetition at the primary education level by two per cent annually;

2. Improve, adjust and modify the contents and substance related to academic, professional and moral courses as embodied in the curricula of primary education, secondary education, vocational education, teacher training and non-formal education to ensure consistency and to produce graduates to meet the socio-economic requirements of the country;

3. Upgrade the standards of schools in remote areas;

4. Provide the necessary educational equipment and materials and supplies to the 25 per cent of the primary school students who are poor and needy; and

5. Develop teachers, lecturers and education personnel concerned with vocational teaching in proportion to the expansion of professional training at the higher education level.

On equal opportunities. All six year-old children will be provided with an opportunity to be enrolled in primary schools. Primary schools will also be set up in all sub-districts.

Lower secondary schools will be decentralized to poor and remote areas of the country with the intent to establish one school per five large sub-districts. During the Fifth Plan period about 130 lower secondary schools will be set up throughout the country. Also if there are no further financial constraints during the Plan period, consideration will be given to the establishment of an additional 120 schools.

On the sharing of education investment burdens. The targets set in terms of ratio of students in public and private educational institutions are as follows:

	Public	**Private**
Pre-school education	47.1	52.9
Primary education	93.8	6.2
Secondary education and equivalent	80.8	19.2
Higher education	83.5	16.5
(Excluding Open University System)		
Average	87.9	12.1

Table 1. Targets on production of students and graduates in each type of education

(Unit: Thousand persons)

Types	*Number of students*		*+ Increase – Decrease*	*Proportion of total people in each age group by 1986 (%)*	*Average number of graduates per annum*
	1982	*1986*			
Pre-school education (4-5)	559	740	181	35.4	–
Primary education (6-11)	7,633	6,497	– 1,136	97.0	1,050
Lower secondary education (12-14)	1,203	1,774	571	48.3	431
Upper secondary education (15-17)	868	1,141	273	30.9	321
– Regular stream	462	599	137	16.2	156
– Vocational stream	372	470	98	12.8	137
– Others	34	49	15	1.3	19
Higher education (18-23)	262	327	65	4.8	95
– Vocational	64	39	– 25	1.2	30
– Teacher training	51	48	–3	0.7	21
– Limited enrolment University system	97	116	19	1.7	31
– Private colleges	35	44	9	0.6	9
– Others	15	40	25	0.6	4
Open university system	893	1,274	381	–	39
Non-formal education (public and private)	Providing services to the average of 1,500,000 persons annually				1,500

Responsible agencies

From 1980 the main responsibility for primary education was given to the Ministry of Education. The Ministry is now 95 per cent responsible while by the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration, the Municipalities and, to a much lesser extent, other agencies such as the Border Patrol and the Department of Social Welfare takes responsibility for the remaining 5 per cent. Table 2 presents the responsible departments, types of primary school and the area of services. It should be noted that even in the Ministry of Education, there are several departments that take part in the primary education organization.

Table 2. Agencies involved in primary education

Agencies	*Types*	*Areas of Services*
Ministry of Education		
Office of the National Primary Education Commission	Primary schools	Urban and rural
Department of General Education	Special education schools and welfare schools	Urban and rural
Teacher Training Department	Demonstration schools	Urban
Office of the Private Education Commission	Primary schools	Urban and rural
Department of Non-formal Education	Non-formal education Centres	Urban and rural
Local Administration		
Bangkok Metropolitan Administration	Primary schools	Urban
Office of Local Elementary Education	Primary schools	Urban
Ministry of University Affairs		
University	Demonstration schools	Urban
Ministry of Interior		
Border Patrol Police Headquarters	Primary schools	Rural

The Office of the National Primary Education Commission (ONPEC). After nearly twenty years of divided responsibilities in the administration and management of primary education, ONPEC was set up in 1980 with eight statutes enacted by Parliament to administer and manage primary education.

Prior to this, government primary schools were under the administration of several government agencies, i.e., the Department of Local Administration (Ministry of Interior), the Department of General Education (Ministry of Education), the municipalities, the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration, teacher colleges and universities. The academic aspects, i.e., primary curriculum development and teacher training were the sole responsibilities of the Ministry of Education.

The new administrative system is divided into four levels: the national, provincial, district and school-cluster levels. At each level, the formulation of policies and development plans as well as decision-making concerning the administration and management of primary education are carried out in the form of committees. The committee at each level consists of government officials from all related agencies, elected representatives of primary school teachers and selected resource persons.

At the national level, the National Primary Education Commission (NPEC) is the policy board entrusted with the following authorities and responsibilities:

a) setting primary education policy in accordance with the National Education Policy and Plan;

b) setting primary education development plans in accordance with the National Education Development Plan and the National Economic and Social Development Plan;

c) considering budget proposals and allocating budget for the management of primary education both from the national budget and other sources;

d) setting standards in terms of academic requirements, school buildings and expenditure;

e) proposing the appointment of the Secretary-General of ONPEC for the consideration of the Minister of Education as well as approving the appointment of Directors of Provincial Primary Education and Bangkok Metropolitan Primary Education;

f) appointing resource persons as members of the Provincial and Bangkok Metropolitan Primary Education Committees;

g) suspending and calling for corrections of actions taken by the Provincial and Bangkok Metropolitan Primary Education Committees regarding the founding, administration, consolidation, improvement and termination of schools as well as the approval of the appointment of Heads of District Primary Education, Directors and Principals of primary schools under the Provincial Primary Education Offices;

h) rendering advice on primary and pre-primary education to the Minister of Education; and

i) setting rules and regulations and undertaking other actions as specified by the law.

The NPEC consists of thirty-one members headed by the Minister of Education or Deputy Minister of Education as assigned by the Minister, who is chairman; the Secretary General of ONPEC as secretary, and 29 members including 12 teachers representatives.

ONPEC it is entrusted with the following authorities and responsibilities:

a) drawing up primary and pre-primary education policies and development plans for the consideration of the NPEC;

b) preparing budget proposals as well as budget allocations concerning the management of primary education for the consideration of the NPEC;

c) setting up standards in terms of academic requirements, school buildings and expenditures for the consideration of the NPEC;

d) proposing the appointment of Directors of Provincial and Bangkok Metropolitan Primary Education for the consideration of the NPEC;

e) monitoring and evaluating the management of primary education as well as submitting related reports to the NPEC;

f) collecting data, conducting and promoting research on primary education;

g) carrying out all the secretarial work of the NPEC as well as other responsibilities as assigned by the NPEC; and

h) undertaking other actions as specified by the law.

The ONPEC is headed by a Secretary-General and is divided into five divisions as follows:

Office of the Secretary: The office is responsible for general administration, secretarial and clerical work, public relations, personnel management and legal matters. It also co-ordinates and carries out other matters which are not the specific functions of other divisions.

Finance Division: The division is responsible for all financial matters of ONPEC, e.g., the disbursement of all types of budget, the transfer of budget to Provincial Primary Education Offices, the purchase of office supplies as well as the provision of welfare services to ONPEC personnel.

Policy and Planning Division: The division is responsible for developing policies and plans in accordance with the National Education Development Plan and the National Economic and Social Development Plan, the allocation of budget, collection and analysis of primary and pre-primary education data, execution of national projects, foreign aid and external relations. It also carries out the secretarial work of the National Primary Education Commission as well as performs other duties specifically assigned by ONPEC.

Research and Development Division: The division is responsible for conducting research work and evaluation on primary and pre-primary education under the jurisdiction of ONPEC in order to find ways and means to further develop primary and pre-primary education, set up standards and provide academic advice on primary and pre-primary education.

Supervisory Unit: The unit is responsible for the follow-up, evaluation and supervision of all work carried out by the Provincial and Bangkok Metropolitan Primary Education Offices to ensure that their operations are in line with the national policies and plans and

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ONPEC regulations. It also promotes research work on instructional methods, collects and disseminates research findings on primary and pre-primary school instruction as well as co-operates with other divisions in developing policies, plans and educational standards.

At the provincial level, the Provincial Primary Education Committee (PPEC) is the executive body responsible for:

a) setting working policies and provincial primary education development plans;

b) considering and approving budget proposals and allocations for the development of primary education;

c) considering and approving proposals concerning school administration and improvement, the founding of new schools, consolidation and termination of schools;

d) considering and approving appointments;

e) considering and approving the annual promotion of primary school teachers; and

f) setting up working rules and regulations.

The PPEC consists of fifteen members headed by the Governor or Deputy Governor of the province.

The Office of the Provincial Primary Education (OPPE) serves as secretariat of the PPEC. It is an administrative unit attached to ONPEC, headed by the Director of Provincial Primary Education.

The administrative institutional framework for primary schools in the Bangkok Metropolis follows that of provincial primary schools. The Bangkok Metropolitan Primary Education Commission (BMPEC) is the executive body entrusted with similar functions and responsibilities as those of the PPEC.

At the district level, the District Primary Education Committee (DPEC) is the co-ordinating body for the administration and management of primary education in each district. It is entrusted with the following functions and responsibilities:

a) co-ordinating all the work involved in the administration and management of education in primary schools under the Office of District Primary Education (ODPE);

b) Proposing the appointment of Directors and Principals of primary schools under the ODPE for the consideration of the PPEC; and

c) Proposing the scale of annual promotion of teachers under the ODPE for the consideration of the PPEC.

The DPEC consists of the following members:

i) the District Officer (chairman);

ii) the district Education Official;

iii) one elected teachers' representative from each school-cluster; and

iv) Head of District Primary Education (member and secretary).

At the school-cluster level, the School-Cluster Committee is responsible for the administration and management of primary education in each school-cluster as follows:

a) develop workplans for school improvement in every aspect, e.g., students' academic achievement, school buildings and facilities, personnel management, students' activities, general administration and finance;

b) co-ordinate with the community in the promotion of school activities;

c) administer all the work of the school-cluster concerning school budget proposals, personnel development, evaluation of teachers' work and the enforcement of the Primary Education Act; and

d) carry out all its functions and activities in accordance with the policies and guidelines of the NPEC, PPEC and DPEC.

The School-Cluster Committee consists of all school principals in the cluster and a number of elected teachers equal to half of the number of principals. The Chairman of the Committee and members who are teachers are elected by all teachers in the school-cluster. The Committee will select the Secretary of the Committee from among its members.

The Chairman of the Committee is responsible for the organization of committee meetings at least once a month, the supervision of schools in the cluster at least once a year, and the collection of data as required by the ODPE as well as the management of government budget and income from other sources in line with the objectives of the school-cluster. The School-Cluster Committee will select a school in its cluster to serve as secretariat of the Committee.

Figure 2. Primary education (ONPEC) – Organizational structure

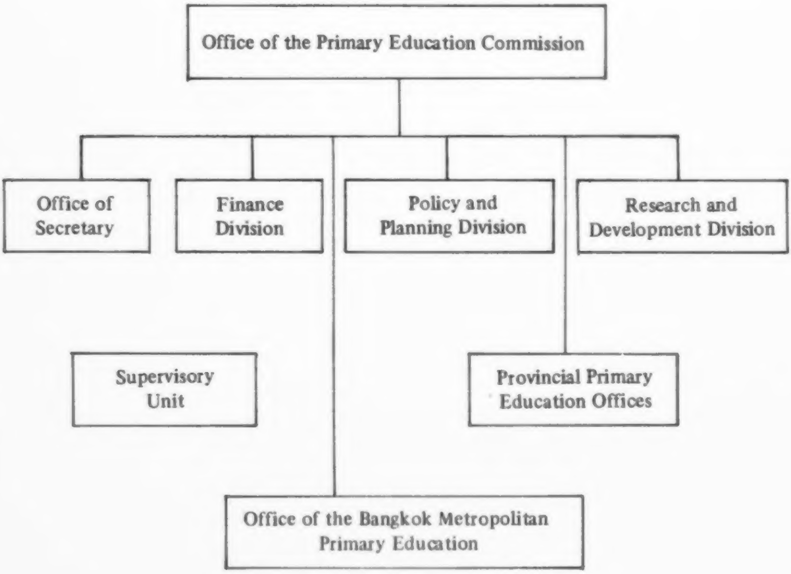

Office of the Primary Education Commission
Office of Secretary
Finance Division
Policy and Planning Division
Research and Development Division
Supervisory Unit
Provincial Primary Education Offices
Office of the Bangkok Metropolitan Primary Education

Figure 3. Provincial Primary Education Offices – Organizational structure

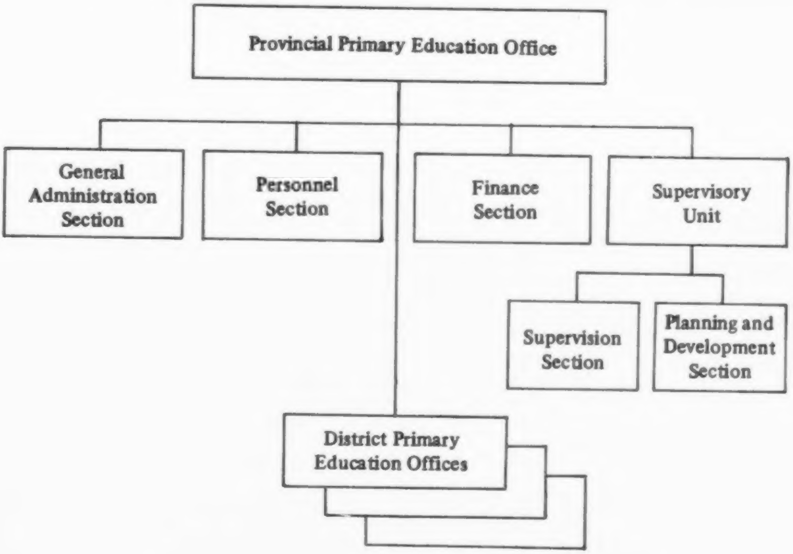
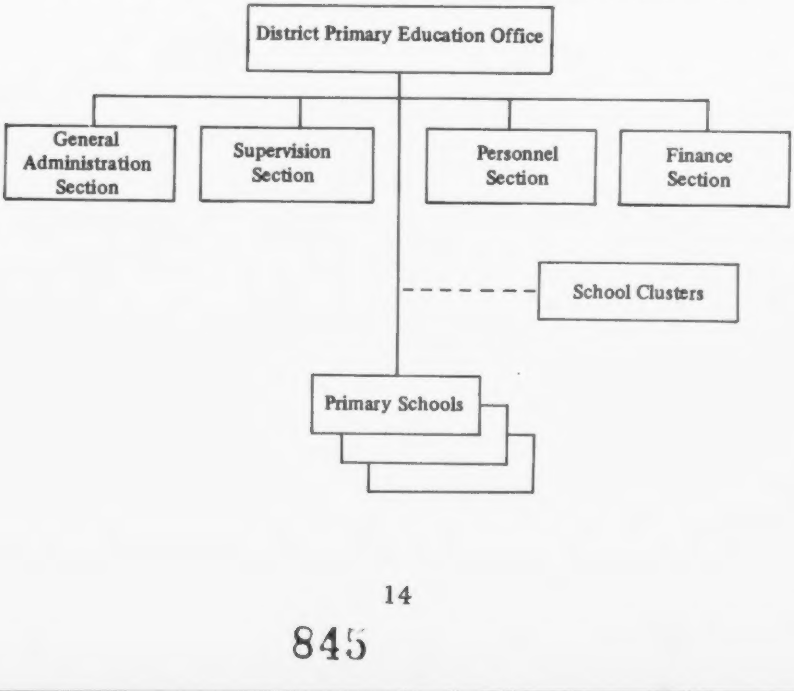

Provincial Primary Education Office
General Administration Section
Personnel Section
Finance Section
Supervisory Unit
Supervision Section
Planning and Development Section
District Primary Education Offices

Figure 4. District Primary Education Office – Organizational structure


District Primary Education Office
General Administration Section
Supervision Section
Personnel Section
Finance Section
School Clusters
Primary Schools

Elementary school curriculum BE 2521 (AD 1978)

Elementary education aims at providing basic knowledge and skills as well as maintaining literacy and computational abilities. It also provides practical experiences leading to the world of work and good citizenry under the democratic system with the Monarch as the Head of State.

Aims

The elementary school curriculum is designed to cultivate the following qualities and outcomes:

Basic knowledge and skills

Personal and community health both physical and mental;

Legal knowledge necessary for everyday living;

Knowledge and skills in earning, consuming and saving;

Understanding scientific and technological implications in daily life;

Knowledge and skills in management, and in working together under the principles of co-operatives;

Knowledge and skills in working both as a producer and as a consumer;

Habit in pursuing further knowledge;

Knowledge and skills in language and mathematics;

Knowledge and skills in the use of scientific methods;

Ability to survive and live in harmony with the social and natural environment; and

Appreciation and expression of various forms of art.

Good member of community and nation

Faith in a constitutional, monarchical democracy;

Appreciation and preservation of national arts and culture;

Awareness of one's rights and responsibilities;

Recognition of the importance of living together peacefully in a family, in a community, and in a society;

Recognition of international relations on the regional and world levels, as well as international understanding;

Ability in mobilizing intellectual, physical, and economic resources for national development and security; and

Awareness of the value of being free, and taking pride in having been born on Thai soil.

Desirable qualities

Self-sacrifice and unselfishness;

Self-discipline and perseverance;

Diligence, honesty, frugality and endurance;

Critical thinking and rational decision making;

Tolerance of criticism and respect for individuals;

Sportsmanship and esteem for others; and

Participation, co-operation and leadership.

Peaceful life

Knowing how to adjust oneself to the changing society, environment, innovation and technology;

Understanding and having faith in one's professed religion, and applying its precepts in daily life;

Knowing how to spend time wisely and effectively;

Initiation and creativity for personal and social benefits;

Having independent thinking as well as being open-minded; and

Knowing how to solve problems by peaceful means.

Policies

The elementary school curriculum is formulated under the following policies:

1. It is meant for all children.
2. It is to provide functional experiences within terminal programme.
3. It aims at building national unity, and consequently consists of certain common components. It also encourages diversification and variation to suit the local needs and situations.

Strategies

The learning experiences may be classified into four main areas:

Area 1 : Tool subjects, comprising the Thai language and mathematics.

Area 2 : Life experiences, involving the problem-solving process, and the various aspects of human societal needs and problems for the purpose of survival and leading a good life.

Area 3 : Character development, dealing with experiences conducive to development and habit formation.

Area 4 : Work-oriented experiences, involving practical work and establishment of a vocational foundation.

In communities where the majority of the population are non-Buddhists, the teaching of religious practices other than those advocated in Buddhism is quite possible but the instructional programme is subject to the approval of the Regional Education Officer.

Organization of learning experiences should be sufficiently flexible so as to suit the learner's developmental level, and the nature of the community. The school structure comprises three levels each of two years duration; grades I-II, grades III-IV, and grades V-VI. The curriculum content for each grade is continuously improved and modified.

Time allocation

Each school year shall consist of not less than 40 working weeks of not less than 25 hours. Thus, altogether 200 days or 1,000 hours of learning activities are required.

Allocation of time for each of the four main areas of learning experiences is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Allocation of time for each of the four main areas of learning

	I and II	*III and IV*	*V and VI*
	percentage		
Tool subjects	50	35	25
Life experiences	15	20	25
Character development	25	25	20
Work-oriented experience	10	20	30

Evaluation

Measurement, evaluation and follow-up processes, organized to develop appropriate teaching and learning activities, and for students to achieve mid-year or end-of-year promotion, are the responsibilities of school administrators and classroom teachers, who carry out formative and/or summative evaluations according to the kinds of experiences and subject content involved. These, in effect, are to be done in conformity with the evaluation regulations as prescribed by the Ministry of Education.

Teacher training

There are 36 teacher training colleges scattered around the Kingdom. The Department of Teacher Education prepares the largest proportion of teachers while specialist institutes prepare teachers of physical education fine arts and vocational activities.

Table 4 shows the numbers of teachers prepared by all institutions from 1977 to 1981. An average of 40,000 teachers were trained each year. As more teachers are trained than there are positions available, some graduates do not get a teaching position.

Table 4. Numbers of new teachers prepared by all institutes (1977 to 1981)

Level	*1977*	*1978*	*1979*	*1980*	*1981*
Lower Cert.	16,887	12,300	6,779	3,727	19,209
Higher Cert.	14,595	16,332	19,784	21,879	
Degree	8,592	11,198	13,278	15,490	17,517

Education appropriation

During the past decade the government has allocated an average 20 per cent of the annual budget for education. This amounts to 3 per cent of the GNP.

The budget for education in 1977 to 1982 varied from 21.6 per cent of the National Budget to 20.2 in 1978, 19.6 in 1979, 21.8 in 1980, 21.1 in 1981, and 20.3 in 1982 (See Table 5).

Within the budget for primary education there has been an annual increase in the amount spent on salaries and wages until by 1981 it had reached over 70 per cent.

In 1980, the ONPEC spent ฿1,788 for each primary school student. Out of this ฿444 was spent on building new schools and ฿1,344 on operation. However, the figures do not include the contributions of the parents and community.

Table 5. Proportion of educational budget (1977-1982)

(million U.S. dollars)

Year	*National budget*	*Educational budget*	*Percentage of national budget*	*Primary ed. allocation (percentage out of ed. budget)*	*Salary allocation percentage out of primary ed.)*
1977	3,034.3	645.3	21.6	58.56	61.06
1978	3,521.7	711.2	20.2	55.60	65.81
1979	4,000.0	782.8	19.6	48.03	66.14
1980	4,980.7	1,083.6	21.8	60.80	66.57
1981	6,087.0	1,219.4	21.1	68.33	71.89
1982	7,000.0	1,418.7	20.3	–	–

Note: Approximately 23 Thai baht (฿) = One United States Dollar

Chapter Two

ANALYSIS

Three disadvantaged groups are the major concern of all educators in Thailand as far as equal educational opportunity is concerned. Many children in the heavily populated urban areas do not have the opportunity to go to school because they do not have the necessary house registration papers necessary for enrolment. Children in the very remote areas, especially Thai minorities have to travel long distances to attend school. Moreover, they speak a different language from central Thai and some believe in different religions. Many other rural children do not go to school because of a lack of funds and personnel to operate an education system.

The quality of primary school graduates varies according to the types of schools attended, their location and geographical areas. From every study, it was reported that students in the Northeast region had the lowest achievement level; even the retention/repeater rates were quite low.

During 1970 to 1982 with the expansion of primary schools to remote sub-districts the enrolment ratios increased from 82.4 to 97.0 in 1980 and dropped back to 94.9 in 1982 (Table 6).

A closer look at the trends of primary school enrolment is presented in Table 7. It should be observed that enrolment reached a plateau in 1982. This evidence is supported by the requests received from many provincial educational authorities to close down some schools because of falling school rolls. The drop in enrolment is due largely to the effectiveness of the family planning programme reducing the birth rate to less than 3.0 in 1980. This decrease is most obviously seen in the urban areas. Enrolment is still increasing in some rural areas.

It is anticipated that in 1984 the enrolment ratio will be at 99 per cent due to the effect of the non-formal education programme. The children in the very remote areas will be provided with an opportunity to get some education at the learning centres in their own villages. With the beginning of the operation of the Educational

Radio System II in 1984, children in every corner of the Kingdom will be able to learn from its programme. In addition, teachers in the remote schools will receive some in-service training through the system.

There is no different in the access to education of boys and girls (Table 8). On a region basis (Table 9), the enrolment ratios among the 12 regions are not so different. Education facilities are quite adequate, except for the physically and mentally handicapped (Tables 10-16). There are only limited services for handicapped children. Only 13 schools are provided for the deaf and the blind, and six of them are in Bangkok. The physically handicapped outside big towns do not have any access at all. Likewise, the mentally handicapped outside Bangkok are deprived of a schooling opportunity. Children of some special groups, such as frequently travelling people, city migrants and boat people, also receive less opportunity. The 23 welfare schools, 139 centres and 42 border patrol-schools are not enough to serve children moving around the Kingdom. These are the children who make it difficult to achieve a 100 per cent access rate.

On the retention rate, it is expected that in 1984, out of 100 students enrolled in grade I, 75 will finish six years of primary education. Using the trends reported in Tables 18 to 21, an annual increase of 3 per cent is anticipated. Two main efforts have been used to make school more attendable. Firstly, the new curriculum gives more emphasis on child development. Children will have more opportunity to explore, act, and enjoy the learning experience provided to inculcate and enrich their own personal development (Table 17). Learning time will be spent more on activities in work-orientation, character development and life experiences than reading and computing.

Secondly, the promulgation of the new curriculum requires the schools to be better equipped. The new curriculum intends to teach the children through active participation in class activities. ONPEC, therefore, will provide more learning equipment and resources for schools through out the Kingdom.

In general, the educational authorities are not happy about the level of achievement in the country, both in terms of national standards and the disparity among the 12 educational regions and

Bangkok. The performance of the children at grade IV in 1979 was still lower than the 50 per cent mark. From the National Assessment conducted by ONPEC in 1981 it was indicated that the levels of achievement in Thai and mathematics were at 35.10 and 44.22 per cent respectively (Table 22). By regions (Table 23) it was shown that Educational Regions 9, 10 and 11 in the Northeastern part of the Kingdom are ranked behind the rest of the country.

The disparity problem is clearly realized by ONPEC. More resources and services will be allocated to these regions to counter the disparity. ONPEC will use more funds to improve the quality of primary education as a whole and to reduce the disparity in particular. The National Assessment Project will be annually conducted to look at the change of these indices. The results of the assessment then will be used in the subsequent measures.

Table 6. Enrolment, population and enrolment percentages of children in primary education age-group (7-13 in 1970, 1975 and 7-12 in 1980, 1982)

Year	*Enrolment*	*Age-group population*	*Percentage*
1970	5,634,782[1]	6,840,846[2]	82.4
1975[3]	6,609,239	7,725,543	85.6
1980[3]	7,370,846	7,602,775	97.0
1982[3]	7,413,571	7,814,702	94.9
1990	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1995	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

Source:
1. From NEC
2. From NSO
3. From OPS

Table 7 : Trends in primary education*

Year	*No. of primary schools*			*No. of enrolled pupils in primary education*			*No. of teachers in primary education*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
1970[1]	26,560	428	26,988	4,433,331	219,593	4,652,924	126,474	7,660	134,134
1975[1]	28,638	443	29,081	5,752,096	283,585	6,035,681	198,802	10,451	209,253
	(+1.56)**	(+0.70)	(+1.55)	(+5.95)	(+5.83)	(+5.94)	(+11.44)	(+7.19)	(+11.20)
1980[1]	30,928	460	31,388	6,648,762	273,916	6,922,678	285,023	14,450	299,473
	(+1.60)	(+0.77)	(+1.59)	(+3.12)	(−0.68)	(+2.94)	(+8.67)	(+7.65)	(+8.62)
1982[2]	31,245	467	31,712	6,662,540	273,253	6,935,793	316,769	14,660	331,429
	(+0.51)	(+0.76)	(+0.52)	(+0.10)	(−0.12)	(+0.09)	(+5.57)	(+0.73)	(+5.34)

* Excludes OPEC

** Figures in brackets are increasing rates per year

Source : 1. From NSO

2. From NEC

Table 8 : Age, sex, grade distribution of pupils enrolled in all grades of primary education and one next higher grade (1980)

Age	*Sex*	*Grade*						
		I	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*	*M1*
Up to 6	F	293,486	26,633	1,121	45	15	1	–
	M	304,284	24,333	942	28	16	7	–
7	F	300,661	197,482	25,219	743	58	9	–
	M	326,726	197,718	22,361	587	49	3	–
8	F	74,530	227,824	191,961	19,938	1,501	106	–
	M	89,597	299,465	187,111	17,661	1,098	114	–
9	F	15,628	86,296	290,817	161,562	20,787	1,408	–
	M	20,575	104,278	306,442	156,876	18,466	1,421	–
10	F	4,660	22,101	104,168	254,337	147,575	21,143	490
	M	6,826	30,535	122,955	262,443	142,268	18,765	428
11	F	2,004	7,265	32,657	101,712	235,556	132,888	11,297
	M	3,236	10,893	44,676	117,915	241,683	127,183	10,483
12	F	1,301	2,985	11,296	35,995	100,988	196,968	42,157
	M	1,978	5,077	17,155	49,232	116,774	208,707	44,157
13	F	768	1,330	4,296	11,619	35,468	68,139	86,564
	M	1,151	2,252	6,946	17,672	45,519	84,620	105,537

Table 8. *(Continued)*

Age	*Sex*	*Grade*						
		I	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*	*MI*
14	F	381	589	1,396	3,291	9,331	15,728	27,991
	M	578	978	2,407	5,802	13,704	24,602	39,722
Over 14	F	195	264	536	945	2,298	2,967	4,696
	M	289	508	998	1,845	3,855	5,713	10,700
Total		1,448,854	1,248,806	1,375,460	1,220,248	1,137,009	910,492	384,222

Source: From NSO

Table 9 : Geopraphical (by regions/provinces) distribution of primary education facilities (1980, excludes OPEC)

Region	*Total population of primary-education Age group (7-12)*	*No. of primary schools*	*No. of pupils enrolled in primary schools*	*Enrolment ratio*
Bangkok	536,781	460	273,916	0.51
			(544,131)*	(1.01)*
1	272,413	866	282,014	1.04
2	192,195	1,118	210,869	1.09
3	569,603	2,414	568,682	0.99
4	171,433	907	174,394	1.02
5	343,920	1,876	416,344	1.21
6	391,364	2,082	379,210	0.96
7	713,334	3,443	709,900	0.99
8	599,316	3,743	621,483	1.03
9	837,363	3,748	845,167	1.00
10	977,818	4,309	977,505	0.99
11	1,060,015	4,459	1,048,778	0.98
12	426,910	1,963	414,416	0.97
Total	7,092,465	31,388	6,922,678	0.97

* If includes OPEC

Source: From NSO

Table 10 : Institutions of primary education

Type of Institution	*Year*			
	1982	*1980*	*1975*	*1970*
Total primary schools[1]	33,181	31,388*	29,081*	26,988*
Of which number of one-teacher schools[2]**	50	100	354	N.A.
Of which number of teachers less than number of classroom schools***	3,398	6,021	N.A.	N.A.
Of which number of schools with pupils less than 100	7,288	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
No. of Teacher Training Institutions	101	95	81	45
No. of In-service Training Institutions	118	118	111	111
Curriculum Development Centre	2	2	1	1
Schools for physically handicapped[3]	13	9	8	7
Schools for mentally handicapped	1	–	–	–
Schools for special Population Groups	23	22	19	11
Other Institutions	139	–	–	–
– DNFE centres	42	–	–	–
– DPPHQ schools				

* excludes private schools

** ONPEC Only

*** excludes number of one-teacher schools

Source: 1. From NEC and NSO

2. From ONPEC

3. From DGE

Table 11 : Percentage of schools according to size (1982, ONPEC only)

No. of Students	*No. of Schools*	*Percentage*
1 – 50	2,090	6.82
51 – 100	5,198	16.96
101 – 200	11,044	36.04
201 – 300	6,462	21.09
301 – 400	2,901	9.47
401 – 500	1,373	4.48
501 – 600	670	2.19
601 – 700	323	1.06
701 – 800	168	0.55
801 – 900	102	0.33
901 – 1,000	90	0.29
over 1,001	220	0.72
Total	30,641	100.00

Source: From ONPEC

Table 12 : Class-size and teacher-pupil ratios (1976-1980)

Year	*Ratio*	
	Class-size	*Teacher-pupil*
1976	32	27
1977	31	25
1978	29	22
1979	29	23
1980	29	22

Source: From NSO

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Table 13 : Teacher-pupil and teacher-classroom ratios (1982)

Department	*Teacher-pupil ratio*		*Teacher-classroom ratio*
	Urban	*Rural*	
1. BMA	18	–	0.78
2. ONPEC	22	20	0.81
3. OLEE	–	21	0.92
4. BPPGHQ	–	26	N.A.
5. GED	14	15	N.A.
6. OUA	14	18	N.A.
Total	19	20	N.A.

Table 14 : Teacher-classroom ratios by educational region (1982, ONPEC only)

Region	*Teacher-classroom ratio*
Bangkok	1:0.74
Region 1	1:0.82
2	1:0.81
3	1:0.86
4	1:0.84
5	1:0.85
6	1:0.85
7	1:0.79
8	1:0.90
9	1:0.77
10	1:0.72
11	1:0.79
12	1:0.85
Average	1:0.81

Source: From ONPEC

Table 15 : Schools, teachers and students by department (1982)[1]

	Schools		*Total*	*Teachers*		*Total*	*Students*		*Total*
	Urban	*Rural*		*Urban*	*Rural*		*Urban*	*Rural*	
1. BMA	420	–	420	12,265	–	12,265	222,315	–	222,315
2. ONPEC	36	30,605	30,641	1,943	315,527	317,470	43,299	6,399,352	6,442,651
3. OLEE	–	458	458	–	11,056	11,056	–	233,888	233,888
4. BPPGHQ	–	153	153	–	695	695	–	14,207	14,207
5. DGB	4	27	31	180	918	1,098	2,520	9,563	12,083
6. TTD	4	2	6	N.A.	N.A.	–	1,287	554	1,841
7. MUA	3	2	5	272	33	305	3,832	597	4,429
8. OPEC[2]	494	973	1,467	N.A.	N.A.	31,903	282,381	352,650	635,031
Total	961	32,220	33,181	–	–	374,792	555,634	7,010,811	7,566,445

Source : 1. From NEC
2. From OPEC

Table 16 : Teachers and supervisors for primary education (1982)

Level of basic qualification	*Teachers*								*Supervisors*							
	ONPEC	*BMA*	*OPEC*	*MUA*	*DGE*	*OLEE*	*BPPGHQ*	*Total*	*ONPEC*[1]	*BMA*[2]	*OPEC*[3]	*MUA*	*DGE*[4]	*OLEE*[5]	*BPPGHQ*	***Total***
Higher than Bachelor's degree	41,852	79	34	126	18	–	–	49,099	1,853	16	–	–	3	–	–	**1,919**
Bachelor's degree or Equivalent		5,738	596	151	505	–		–		43	–	–	4	–	–	
Lower than Bachelor's degree	–	–	–	28	–	–	–	28	73	–	–	–	–	–	–	**73**
Dip. in Ed. or Equivalent	171,973	4,767	9,312	–	401	–	–	186,453	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Lower than Dip. in Ed.	80,554	–	2,020	–	53	–	–	82,627	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cert. in Ed. or Equivalent	12,928	1,183	10,588	–	92	–	–	24,771	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Lower than Cert. in Ed.	10,163	498	9,373	–	–	–	–	20,034	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Unknown	–	–	–	–	29	11,056	695	11,780	–	–	61	–	–	113	–	**174**
Total	317,470	12,265	31,903	305	1,098	11,056	695	374,792	1,926	59	61	–	7	113	–	**2,166**

Source:
1. From NEC
2. From BMA
3. From OPEC
4. From DGE
5. From OLEE

Table 17 : Number of teaching periods specified in primary school curriculum

Subject/Activity	*Grade*					
	I	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*
Skill Subjects	1,500	1,500	1,050	1,050	756	756
Life Experience	450	450	600	600	756	756
Character Development	750	750	750	750	594	594
Work Experiences	300	300	600	600	900	900
Extra Learning Experiences: foreign language or basic vocational skill	–	–	–	–	594	594
Total periods	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,600	3,600

Note:
1. Number of working days for primary schools in a year : not less than 200 days
2. Number of periods per week : 75 periods (grade I-IV) 90 periods (grade V-VI)
3. One period = 20 minutes

Table 18 : Retention rate in primary education (1976-1982)

Year	*Grade*					
	I	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*
1976	1,540,540	1,290,994	1,238,289	1,104,641	644,742	499,499
1977	1,527,737	1,289,613	1,262,049	1,105,265	702,799	540,306
1978	1,599,250	1,304,699	1,268,865	1,146,584	942,953	585,770
1979	1,501,152	1,394,314	1,292,455	1,186,172	1,066,873	802,798
1980	1,451,840	1,306,466	1,367,330	1,220,031	1,124,176	901,003
1981	1,426,164	1,265,737	1,265,287	1,332,576	1,187,107	972,348
1982	1,366,765	1,158,782	1,211,048	1,236,868	1,315,152	1,053,847
1976-1977	9,046,683	7,851,823	7,694,275	7,095,269	5,668,650	
1977-1982		7,719,611	7,667,034	7,227,496	6,339,060	4,856,072
retention rate		85.33	97.65	93.93	89.34	85.67
1976-1977	3,068,277		(83.48)			
1978-1979			2,561,320			
1979-1980				(78.42) 2,406,203		
1980-1981					(75.33) 2,311,283	
1981-1982						(66.04) 2,026,195

Source: From NSO

Table 19 : Transition (1971-1976) promotion (1977-1982) rates for grade IV/V, grade VII/M.S. 1 and grade VI/M.1

Year	*G IV/V*	*G VII/M.S. 1*	*G VI/M. 1*
1971/1972	46.78	86.72	
1972/1973	50.53	91.11	
1973/1974	51.94	88.95	
1974/1975	55.18	87.65	
1975/1976	58.18	82.06	
1976/1977	63.62	80.96	
1977/1978	85.31	75.81	62.13
1978/1979	93.05		59.15
1979/1980	94.77		47.37
1980/1981	97.30		45.49
1981/1982	98.65		43.92

Source: From OPS

Table 20 : Percentage of repeaters by grade (1968-1982)

Year	*1968**		*1969**		*1970*		*1971*		*1972*		*1973*		*1974*		*1975*		*1980****		*1981****		*1982****	
Grade	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*
I	441,474	26.38	1,055,932	25.60	1,257,388	25.46	1,517,643	24.29	1,586,106	24.20	1,470,000	23.06	1,328,289	22.67	1,517,107	22.16	1,222,862	12.07	1,122,114	14.87	1,081,733	14.20
II	948,518	16.46	886,042	16.07	1,039,415	15.54	1,195,781	14.20	1,322,050	16.24	1,433,805	12.41	1,147,604	14.94	1,251,596	12.93	1,131,442	7.06	1,048,508	7.44	1,008,042	6.62
III	853,280	14.07	810,587	14.63	957,333	14.24	1,117,998	12.81	1,203,423	15.68	1,189,055	12.45	1,121,529	12.56	1,211,450	12.61	1,142,781	4.86	1,038,616	4.92	1,010,909	4.30
IV	719,937	5.63	681,352	6.40	803,706	6.54	954,100	6.20	1,044,216	7.36	1,316,343	4.05	974,081	5.05	1,066,066	5.53	1,051,258	4.46	1,044,023	3.91	1,009,586	3.75
V	141,676	10.33	173,815	12.06	284,047	9.38	385,822	8.42	472,130	12.45	495,071	10.12	463,278	11.61	546,448	12.77	966,851	7.03	1,136,932	6.61	1,027,434	6.31
VI	106,986	6.32	128,180	8.49	219,785	5.32	315,341	5.03	369,082	8.89	400,903	5.22	378,275	6.31	445,128	7.06	762,239	3.31	890,442	2.76	1,023,767	2.22
VII	81,231	3.41	101,791	5.82	175,984	3.89	256,967	3.23	306,198	7.98	329,008	2.73	323,259	3.50	382,928	2.88						
Total	3,992,852	19.39	3,837,699	15.96	4,738,158	15.10	5,743,652	13.85	6,303,205	15.55	6,634,185	12.03	5,736,315	13.10	6,420,723	12.80	6,277,483	6.74	6,280,635	6.95	6,161,471	6.32

* Excludes OPEC

*** *ONPEC* only.

Table 21 : Percentage of repeaters by educational region (1968-1982)

Year	*1968**		*1969**		*1970*		*1971*		*1972*		*1973*		*1974*		*1975*		*1980****		*1981****		*1982****	
Region	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*	*Total Students*	*Repeaters (per cent)*
1					386,858	11.51	450,029	9.92	704,626	18.11	809,552	7.57	N.A.	N.A.	820,330	8.94	311,955	7.43	296,001	8.72	295,979	7.51
2					122,789	25.54	144,191	23.41	159,877	24.33	162,253	22.75	N.A.	N.A.	160,555	22.27	171,307	18.46	180,117	15.90	175,948	16.10
3					247,518	19.07	454,961	17.39	484,166	15.29	519,742	14.82	N.A.	N.A.	521,262	15.04	528,229	3.93	527,344	9.08	520,857	7.81
4					122,176	19.78	142,891	18.00	133,780	22.95	154,931	9.33	N.A.	N.A.	160,269	16.79	158,764	4.50	161,732	9.31	158,915	8.29
5					239,735	16.20	365,164	14.33	626,861	14.86	390,346	14.12	N.A.	N.A.	405,331	17.41	371,868	4.29	367,610	9.68	361,928	9.23
6					305,761	13.91	377,950	12.09	694,902	13.49	395,201	12.08	N.A.	N.A.	411,456	11.17	304,498	8.10	334,569	6.94	322,652	7.20
7					564,891	18.25	596,113	18.18	614,775	18.41	637,293	15.05	N.A.	N.A.	675,432	16.02	968,726	7.27	667,121	10.18	634,274	8.88
8					390,565	21.65	619,488	20.99	642,298	20.72	660,475	18.27	N.A.	N.A.	602,989	18.71	590,154	9.77	546,533	8.20	529,405	7.64
9					496,629	11.91	548,993	8.83	684,044	8.48	612,253	8.90	N.A.	N.A.	674,145	8.78	815,011	3.40	828,587	2.70	810,667	2.48
10					554,745	9.43	618,759	8.93	652,795	11.54	684,260	8.12	N.A.	N.A.	751,271	7.46	951,796	3.07	950,853	2.70	928,487	2.54
11					642,085	16.66	707,383	14.93	107,766	16.18	764,668	14.06	N.A.	N.A.	813,981	13.78	1,021,405	7.46	1,032,730	6.24	973,056	5.86
12					282,230	15.26	355,605	13.20	379,384	12.89	389,106	12.44	N.A.	N.A.	352,828	13.49	384,541	10.03	387,438	9.13	391,846	8.03
Total	3,992,852	19.39	3,837,699	15.96	4,738,158	15.10	5,743,652	13.85	6,303,205	15.55	6,634,185	12.03	5,736,315	13.10	6,420,723	12.80	6,277,483	6.74	6,280,635	6.95	6,161,471	6.32

* Excludes OPEC

*** *ONPEC* only.

Table 22 : Means of achievement (in percentage)

Year	*Grade*	*Average scores*		
		THAI	*MATH*	*OTHERS*
1963 - 1965	I	41.00	55.00	
	IV	57.01	23.95	Sc. = 32 Geo. = 37
1967 - 1969	I	44.74	53.32	Sc. = 48 Soc. = 46 Art/Music – Neatness = 36 Art. app. = 54
	IV	66.25	69.02	
1973 - 1975	III	32.90	32.90	–
		(4 series @)		
1979	I	50 - 60		
	II	60 - 62		
	II	68.88	68.67	Life Exp. = 62
	III	54.40	45.41	Life Exp. = 47 Work Exp. = 59 Cha. Dev. = 52
	IV	48.28	49.94	Life Exp. = 44 Work Exp. = 51 Cha. Dev. = 51
1980	III	51.55	50.50	–
1981	VI	35.10	44.22	–

Source: From ONPEC

Table 23 : Achievement level by educational region (average scores in percentage)

Region	*Grade 3 (1973)*				*Grade 3 (1980)*				*Grade 4 (1982)*			
	THAI		*MATH*		*THAI*		*MATH*		*THAI*		*MATH*	
	$\bar{X}$	*Rank*	$\bar{X}$	*Rank*	$\bar{X}$	*Rank*	$\bar{X}$	*Rank*	$\bar{X}$	*Rank*	$\bar{X}$	*Rank*
1	49.3	1	49.6	1	59.9	1	58.5	1	66.0	1	57.7	3
2	33.4	6	35.6	5	–	–	–	–	47.9	9	47.0	11
3	34.5	5	37.3	3	48.5	5	49.4	5	56.7	6	50.1	8
4	29.9	9	30.7	9	53.0	4	52.5	4	57.2	5	52.7	6
5	35.2	4	35.6	4	–	–	–	–	61.9	2	53.9	4
6	37.3	2	37.3	2	55.1	3	54.4	3	58.6	4	51.0	7
7	31.7	7	32.1	8	47.1	8	47.6	7	54.8	8	53.0	5
8	31.5	8	32.7	7	48.2	6	48.2	6	56.6	7	57.8	2
9	27.8	10	27.3	10	41.7	9	39.5	9	44.2	10	49.1	9
10	24.7	12	24.7	12	38.1	10	37.7	10	44.2	11	47.7	10
11	27.5	11	26.1	11	47.6	7	45.7	8	43.6	12	46.0	12
12	35.3	3	34.9	6	57.5	2	55.0	2	60.1	3	65.4	1

Source: From NEC

Chapter Three

SIGNIFICANT NEW DEVELOPMENTS AND PROGRAMMES

The National Literacy Campaign

The year 1983 marked the 700th aniversary of the invention of the Thai Alphabet under the command of King Ramkhamhaeng the Great. Today, literacy is no longer a privilege granted to a few but it is considered to be a basic right of every Thai. Literacy is identified as a decisive factor in the liberation of individuals from ignorance, as a precondition for broad-based democratic participation and as an indispensable vehicle for the development of the society.

Yet, while the nation celebrates the 700th anniversary of the Thai Alphabet, over 4 million Thais are left at a disadvantage because they are illiterate. These people are found among the poorest of the poor in every province of the nation. Over 60 per cent are within the working age groups and approximately 60 per cent are women. They are parents of our future generations, they are breadwinners of the families and the productive force of the community. Any struggle for a developed and a just society cannot be achieved if it fails to reach 14.5 per cent of the population who are illiterate.

As an indication of its firm commitment to the eradication of illiteracy, the Thai government set a target in the Fifth Social and Economic Development Plan to reduce the country's illiteracy rate from 14.5 per cent to 10.5 per cent. Accordingly, a plan has been formulated to reach 1.5 million illiterates within five years with an emphasis on those within the age groups of 14-50.

At present, there are several ongoing efforts to cope with the illiteracy problem. The universalization of primary education will ensure that every child will have access to schooling and that there will be fewer and fewer new illiterates. For the 4 million illiterates who are already out-of-school, the Department of Non-formal Education has been organizing a functional literacy programme. The objectives of the programme, however, extend beyond literacy teaching. It aims to promote rational thinking to provide basic and fundamental education as well as to certify graduates for primary education. To attain these objectives, the programme requires specialized training for teachers, up-to-date learning materials, regular follow-up and supervision. Consequently, in spite of intensive investment in the programme, it can only serve 50,000 illiterate adults each year.

While existing efforts can help to contribute towards total eradication of illiteracy, with limited resources it is not feasible to expand them to serve the targeted population of 1.5 million. Any struggle to overcome illiteracy among such a vast and diverse population cannot be handled by any one agency or even by the government alone. It must be based on a national sense of commitment and must receive popular support from all levels.

Improvement of learning quality in primary schools

It is vital to equip the primary schools with learning resources specified by the new curriculum to ensure the liveliness of the classroom and to make school more bearable. Therefore, ONPEC will provide supplementary readers and instructional materials.

The proposed project concerns the provision of teaching-learning materials and equipment for grades I-VI and the promotion of work-oriented skill training for grades V-VI on the basis of the school-cluster system. It should yield results which will be useful for further planning and pinpoint any necessary adjustment of the ways in which teaching-learning materials and equipment could be most effectively provided in order to achieve the objectives of the new primary curriculum. This will include the maximum use of the available educational resources, taking into account the economic and social conditions of different localities.

The proposed project should cover all the 12 educational regions in Thailand by concentrating on six selected school-clusters in each region. In selecting the school-clusters, consideration will be given to an equal distribution of the selected school-clusters in both the deprived and developing areas, i.e., 36 school-clusters in deprived areas and 36 school-clusters in developing areas will be selected. In each educational region, all six school-clusters should be located within not more than two provinces in order to facilitate the work involved in monitoring the project. In each school-cluster, the school which acts as the service-centre for other satellite schools will receive the major share of the teaching-learning materials and equipment while satellite schools with grades I-VI and those with grades I-IV will receive a quantity of the teaching-learning materials and equipment proportionate to their needs and sizes. (On average a school-cluster consists of eight schools out of which six schools offer classes from grades I-VI and two only offer classes from grades I-IV). Schools which act as service-centres or "Leader Schools" of the 72 school-clusters will be provided with one set of equipment for skill training in two or three work-oriented subjects which suit their needs, while satellite-schools will receive basic equipment to promote skill training mainly in agriculture and handicrafts.

The specific objectives of the project are to:

1. Supply one set of basic school-kits to the remaining 6,808 primary schools who did not benefit from the UNICEF aid programme during 1979-1981;
2. Procure and supply one set of supplementary readers for grades I-VI to 72 selected school-clusters;
3. Procure and supply one set of instructional materials and equipment for grades I-VI to 72 selected school-clusters;
4. Provide buildings for work-oriented skill training for grades V-VI to 72 school-clusters in the case where a school-cluster has not yet been provided with a resource centre or a multi-purpose building which will also be used for skill training;
5. Equip 72 workshops in selected school-clusters with one set of equipment for skill training in two or three work-oriented subjects including installation instructions and provide basic skill training equipment to 72 school-clusters for grades V-VI;
6. Provide training to 144 teachers and supervisors for teaching work-oriented subjects for grades V-VI;
7. Ensure a regular supply of raw materials for use in work-oriented workshops in selected school-clusters;

8. Produce and supply 432 teaching kits for grades V-VI work-oriented subjects to selected school-clusters;
9. Undertake studies to assess the impact of the project on learners, teachers and administrators; and
10. Study the operation of the school-cluster system for the improvement of primary education.

National assessment

The knowledge of the real performance of the students is necessary in learning about whether specified objectives are attained. If all objectives are achieved, it can be said that the educational management is successful. But, if the objectives are not met, it is necessary to know the reason so that appropriate correction measures can be identified. To this end ONPEC has launched a National Assessment Programme.

The results of the programme will be used as a guide towards attaining better standards.

The objectives of the programme are to:

1. Report the actual performance of the students in the four groups of learning experiences;
2. Present students' performance in each of the educational regions, and in each province in the four groups of learning experiences;
3. Compare students' performance year by year reflecting the educational progress of the Kingdom; and
4. Supply all necessary data concerning educational quality for appropriate planning and control.